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ABSTRACT

These two journal issues present articles on the following: "Understanding and Teaching American Cultural Thought through English Metaphors" (Carl Zhonggang Gao); "An Alternative Model for Novice-Level Elementary ESL Education" (Karen Duke, Ann Mabbott); "Wisconsin's Approach to Academic Assessment for Limited-English Proficient Students (LEP): Creating a Continuum of Assessment Options" (Tim Boals); "More Than the Usual Heterogeneity in the ESL Writing Class" (Mark Balhorn"; "La Club de Lectura: An Oasis for Struggling Readers in Bilingual Classrooms" (Kathryn Henn-Reinke); "The Multicultural Classroom: Immigrants Reading the Literature of the American Immigrant Experience" (Molly Collins); "A Look at ESL Instruction for Literacy-Level Adults" (Patsy Vinogradov); and "Issues Related to ESL Students and Minnesota's Basic Standards Tests: A Synthesis of Research from Minnesota Assessment Project" (Michael E. Anderson, Bonnie Swierzbin, Kristin K. Liu, and Martha L. Thurlow). The journals also include reviews of several books: "Bilingual Education: Teachers' Narratives" (Nancy Lemberger); "The Internet Activity Workbook" (Dave Sperling); and "New Immigrants in the United States" (Sandra Lee McKay and Sau-Ling Cynthia Wong). Finally, the journals contain poems: "The Great Escape" (Don Hones); "ImAgInArY WoRlD" (Hawa Farah); and "A Bird Flying up the Sky" (Hawa Farah). (SM)

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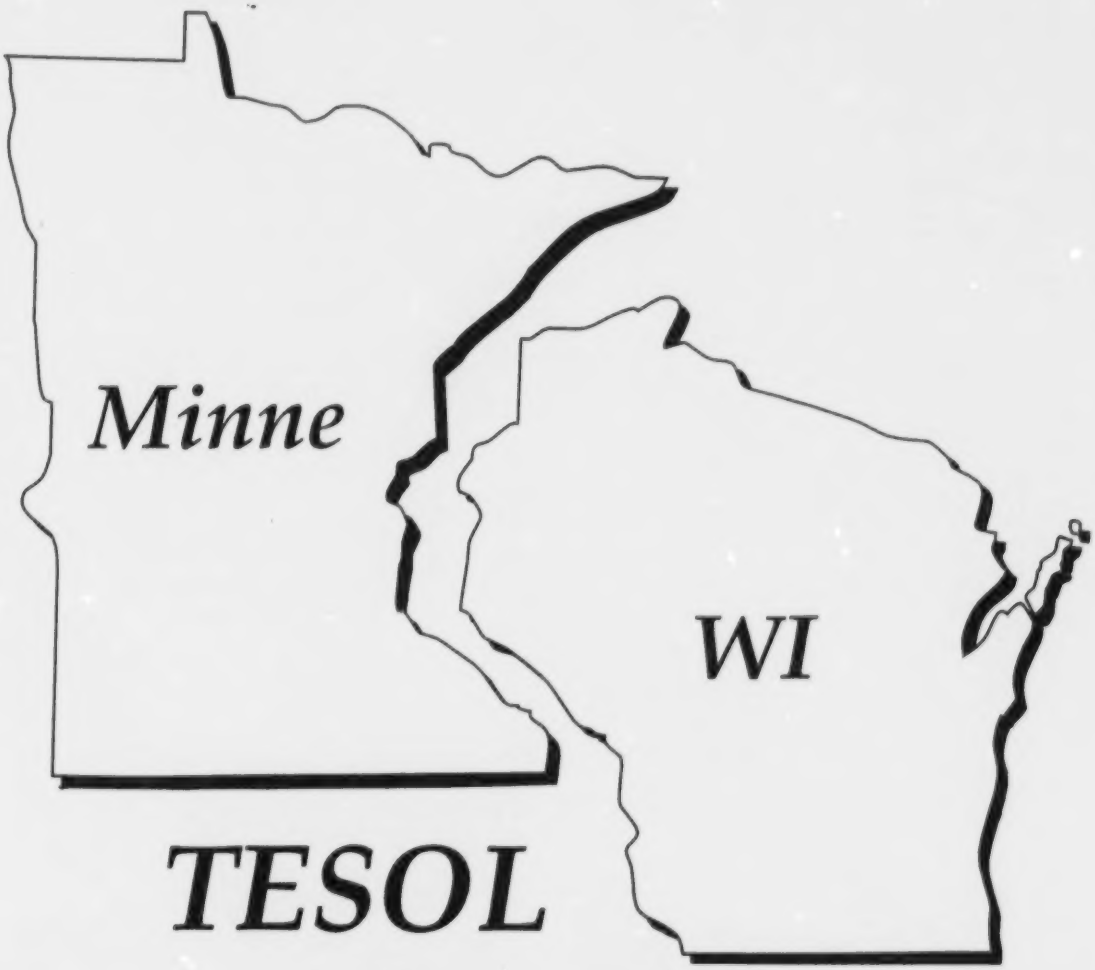

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- **Manuscripts**
  Manuscripts should conform to the style book followed by TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages), the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*. Please include a brief (e.g., 100-word) abstract and short biographical statement.

  Submit **five** paper copies of the manuscript and abstract. Upon acceptance of your article for inclusion in the journal, you will be asked to send us a computer diskette of your article.

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INTRODUCTION

With this volume, we mark five years of collaboration between Minnesota and Wisconsin on the MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal, and over eighteen years since the beginning of the MinneTESOL Journal. We are pleased to continue this affiliate collaboration, and to present an array of articles that should meet the interests of the broad range of TESOL professionals our two affiliates serve.

Our first article is on a topic of general interest, the understanding and teaching of metaphors in English, by Carl Gao, who also contributed to volume 16. In this article Gao explores the use of metaphors in spoken and written English, and provides guidelines for instructors to introduce metaphors in the classroom.

The next three articles address concerns with English Language Learners in the U. S. educational system. One concern is with how to best structure an ESL program for K-6 students. Karen Duke and Ann Mabbott discuss how a St. Paul elementary school moved from self-contained ESL classes to a collaborative program in which, for much of the day, Hmong students are with their native English speaking peers and classroom teacher. In addition, they receive services both in and outside of the main classroom from their ESL teacher and bilingual assistant. In this model the ESL teacher and classroom teacher work as a team on lesson plans and assessment.

In the third article Tim Boals discusses the concern educators have with academic accountability on a statewide level, and how English Language Learners can be assessed in a way that is fair and realistic. He describes how the state of Wisconsin has moved to provide a continuum of options, including alternate assessments at lower proficiency levels as well as testing accommodations at higher levels.

Finally, Mark Balhorn presents research in which he compares the writing of Southeast Asian permanent residents and international students in ESL classes at the university level. The results of his study raise questions about the academic preparedness of some Southeast Asian permanent residents, and Balhorn gives suggestions for both high schools and colleges to improve the chances for these students' success. It is possible that with the types of local changes discussed in Duke's and Mabbott's article, and with the statewide initiatives outlined in Boals' article, educators at the university level will see fewer of the issues Balhorn has found.

There are two book reviews included in this volume. The first is of *Bilingual Education: Teachers' Narratives* by Nancy Lemberger, which includes both a historical and theoretical framework for bilingual education as well as eight teacher narratives. The second is of *The Internet Activity Workbook* by Dave Sperling, a workbook and companion website which will help even the most inexperienced teacher guide students through the internet.

In addition, Don Hones, one of the journal co-editors, shares the poem he composed about his trip to Vancouver TESOL, entitled "The Great Escape." Don originally wrote this poem to convince his TESOL students at the University of Wisconsin-Oshkosh to attend a national TESOL convention, so we have printed it here in hopes that our readership will be similarly persuaded!

With this volume Susan Gillette and Patricia Eliason, both of the University of Minnesota, join Don Hones, University of Wisconsin-Oshkosh as co-editors. Suellen Rundquist has assisted us in making this transition to new leadership. We wish to thank her and the members of the Editorial Advisory Board in both Minnesota and Wisconsin for all the effort that went into producing this volume.

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Understanding and Teaching American Cultural Thought through English Metaphors

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University of Wisconsin-River Falls

English metaphors are a mirror of American culture. Understanding them requires knowledge of the cultural contexts in which metaphors are embedded. This paper discusses the nature of English metaphors and metaphors as reflections of American cultural thought and behavior and presents five specific steps for using English metaphors to teach American cultural concepts in ESL/EFL classrooms.

English metaphors are a mirror of American culture. They are "pervasive in our daily life, not just in the language, but in thought and action. Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 3). Native English speakers in this country understand metaphors in their own language and take them for granted because they are brought up in and live in an American cultural environment. International students living and studying in the United States may understand every word of daily life metaphors, but they may not truly understand the underlying meanings of these metaphors. Understanding them requires knowledge of the cultural contexts in which metaphors are embedded.

THE NATURE OF METAPHOR

What is metaphor? In *Poetics*, Aristotle (1954) defines metaphor as "giving the thing a name that belongs to something else"(p. 251). The word originates from Greek, meaning to "carry from one place to another." Lakoff (1996) further defines metaphor as "involving understanding one domain of experience in terms of a very different domain of experience. More technically, the metaphor can be understood as a mapping (in the mathematical sense) from a source domain to the target domain" (pp. 206-207). Scholars differ in their opinions on how to characterize metaphors. Generally speaking, metaphors are categorized as representing three phenomena: a purely linguistic phenomenon, a more gen-

eral communication phenomenon, and a phenomenon of thought and mental representation (Ortony, 1996).

Linguistically speaking, a metaphor is an anomaly in the study of meaning. When people say A is A, they are following the semantic rule by stating the linguistic truth. But when they say A is B, they are breaking that semantic rule by talking about something that is untrue. It is a linguistic falsity; A can never be B. The breaking of this semantic rule results in the creation of what we call a metaphor to convey a particular idea.

As a general communication phenomenon, metaphors are considered in terms of conventional versus figurative, or literal versus nonliteral uses of language. The primary concern of this general communication phenomenon lies in the distinction between surface meaning and metaphor meaning. For instance, *Love is a journey* is certainly anomalous as a linguistic phenomenon, but its metaphorical connotation extends itself to mean that lovers in a relationship are (just like) travelers on the road; anything may happen on the road of love. "Metaphorical use of language is language creativity at its highest" (Fromkin & Rodman, 1998, p. 188).

Finally, metaphors, as a phenomenon of thought and mental representation, associate language use with our cultural perception and experience of the world around us. Lakoff (1996) argues that "the metaphor is conceptual; it is not in the words themselves, but in the mental images" (p. 229). He believes that "the metaphor is not just a matter of language, but of thought and reason. The language is secondary. The mapping is primary" (p. 208). Since metaphor is central to the way the world is perceived, human cultural thought and values are embedded in metaphor. It is only natural that concepts of American culture can be learned through the understanding of English language metaphors.

In daily use of metaphors, there is a tendency to make a distinction between what Fraser (1996) calls "the live and dead metaphors" (p. 330). A live metaphor is a metaphor that is novel and full of life. It is fresh and unconventionalized. People can create their own metaphors depending on the need in their writing and speech. "John is married to his tennis game" (Fraser) is an example of such a live metaphor. A dead metaphor, on the other hand, is a metaphor that was once alive, but with overuse, has lost its novelty and vitality and has become a conventionalized saying or an idiom in English. The phrase *kick the bucket* is an example of a dead metaphor. The distinction between the live and dead metaphor is necessary because many English professors, including ESL professionals, would discourage their students from using dead metaphors in their writings. They argue that these overused expressions have become clichés that do not convey fresh ideas or concepts in writing. This discussion of metaphors includes examples of both kinds to explore the cultural thought and behaviors that are embedded in them.

METAPHORS AS REFLECTIONS OF AMERICAN THOUGHT AND BEHAVIORS

The English language is a metaphorical language. The metaphor *time is money*, for example, has long been an important concept in American culture. It may have been coined and popularized by Benjamin Franklin in America (Somer & Weiss, 1996) and can be traced back to the time of the industrial revolution when people started to be paid for work by the amount of time they put in. Thus, the factory led to the institutional pairing of periods of time with amounts of money, which formed the experiential basis of this metaphor (Lakoff, 1996).

This metaphorical concept has become deeply rooted in our thoughts, language, and culture. The following expressions in our present time reflect this conceptual image of *time is money* (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; see Appendix for more examples):

1. Please do not *waste my time* on these trivial things.
2. This new software program has *saved me a lot of time.*
3. You may want to *spend some quality time* with your children.
4. The replacement of your car battery *cost me* an hour and a half.
5. John has *invested so much time* in his SAT exam that he may get the score he needs to get into a good university.

These examples show that time is tantamount to money. "Time with us is handled much like a material; we earn it, spend it, save it, waste it" (Hall, 1957, p. 20). This is indeed the case. We spend time; we spend money. We invest time; we invest money. We save time; we save money. We lose time; we lose money. We run out of time; we run out of money. We even borrow time, and we borrow money as well. Time is, without any question, money.

These examples are also reflections of American cultural life. "We are obsessed with time" compared to many other cultures because time is a "valuable commodity" in this society (Hall, 1957, p. 21). The appointment system is one of the many manifestations of how Americans handle this valuable commodity. Time is divided into different slots according to the nature of the business. For example, a student needs to have an appointment to see a counselor, an advisor, a tutor, a professor, the chairperson, or the dean.

Another aspect of American popular culture that is reflected heavily in English metaphors is sports. The idea that "working is playing sports" is deeply engrained in the American mind and has become a mental image in this culture. Some examples that reflect this idea include:

1. Allen is a *team player.*
2. He *played* political *hardball* to get a government post.

3. Jack is full of dirty ploys. He always *hits below the belt*.
4. The reporter *threw* the politician *a curve* by asking him an unexpected question.
5. You don't want to *jump the gun* the second time.

(See more examples in Appendix.)

Collective efforts and mutual cooperation are considered to be *teamwork* and individuals *team players*. If you *play by the book* and *toe the line*, you are obeying the rules. But if you *play hardball, throw someone a curve ball, hit someone below the belt*, or *jump the gun*, you are violating the rules of fair play or work ethics. Working is (just like) playing sports in that you have to make an effort. By trying hard to achieve your goal, you *give it your best shot*, even if you know that it is going to be *a long shot*. By making an effort, you can *get back on the beam* and *pull your weight*. Things may not be that easy. You will have to deal with different circumstances. Sometimes, it is *slam dunk* and other times, you have to *roll with the punches*. If you are *out in left field*, you are probably out of touch with reality and do not know exactly what you are doing.

Working or playing sports involves initiation, termination, success or failure. You may have some initial success in *getting to first base* or *clearing the first hurdle*, or you are *off to a running start* and *getting the ball rolling*. To be successful in work and sports, a worker or player has to be efficient and functional. You need to *know the ropes*, have something *on the ball*, and *play all the angles*. There are always fortunate times and unfortunate ones. When you have *the inside track*, you have the advantage over others. When you are *behind the eight ball*, you are out of luck. You will have to *throw in the towel*. You may be placed *on the sidelines* if you do not perform the way you are expected. If luck turns your way, you may be *saved by the bell* at the crucial moment and it may be a whole *new ballgame*. In the end, you will have to learn to accept the consequences: *You win some, you lose some*, and *you can't win them all* is the attitude; *that's the way the ball bounces*.

The various themes identified in the above sports metaphors include teamwork, obeying rules, foul play, making an effort, initial success, fortunes and misfortunes, dealing with circumstances, accepting consequences, and being efficient and functional. Like the *time is money* metaphor, *working is playing sports* has become an integral part of many English idiomatic expressions and part of American culture. The origins of these terms may not be accurately known, yet they have taken root in American thought and behaviors.

USING METAPHORS TO INTRODUCE AMERICAN CULTURAL THOUGHT

Because English metaphors are a reflection of American cultural thought and behaviors, ESL teachers can use them as a tool to teach or introduce various aspects of American thought and values. By understanding the way English metaphors are created, ESL students will understand the cultural thought patterns and the mental images that are embedded in these metaphors. Teaching ESL students to understand and use English metaphors can be a very challenging task. I suggest that the following activity be used with upper intermediate or advanced levels of ESL composition classes, for understanding and being able to use English metaphors really require a certain degree of language proficiency. I recommend the following specific steps: introducing metaphors, understanding the themes and their connection, identifying the conceptual image, describing the characteristic behaviors, and illustrating the metaphorical concept.

1. Introducing Metaphors

When teachers introduce English metaphors to ESL students, it is important that they examine the literal language of these metaphors together first. Let's use the following metaphors as examples:

> *Love is a fiend, a fire, a heaven, a hell, where pleasure, pain, and sad repentance dwell.* --Barnfield
> *Life is a hospital, in which every patient is possessed by the desire to change his bed. This one would prefer to suffer in front of the stove and that one believes he would get well if he were placed by the window.* --Baudelaire
> *Finding the right mortgage is no picnic.* --Norwest Bank flyer

The language used in these metaphors is very easy to comprehend. Students can see the meanings of these metaphors without having a hard time associating the concepts with the referents. Teachers can ask students the following questions:

a. Do these metaphors make sense to you?
b. What do they mean?
c. Do you have similar metaphors in your language and culture?
d. Can you share some of these similar metaphors with the class?

2. Understanding the Themes and their Connections

The relationship between the themes and their connections can be

shown by the mapping process, which illustrates the association between the source domain and the target domain (Lakoff, 1996). In (1), *love* is the source domain and a *fiend*, a *fire*, a *heaven*, and a *hell* are all target domains. We can use an equivalent mark (=) to represent this connection: *love = a fiend; love = a fire; love = a heaven;* and *love = a hell.* In the other examples, we have *life = hospital;* and *finding the right mortgage = no picnic.* In understanding the themes and their connections, teachers should explain how the concept or idea of the source domain relates to that of the target domain and let the students see the cultural connection between the two domains. Teachers can ask questions to involve ESL students in the discussion:

a. How can *love* be associated with concepts of both good and evil?
b. What are the cultural connections between *love* and *heaven*? *love* and *hell*? etc.
c. Do you describe *love* in your own culture this way?
d. What concepts or specific expressions would you use to describe *love* in your language?

3. Identifying Conceptual Images

This probably is the most important step in understanding English metaphors because students will have to understand what conceptual images the metaphors present and why native speakers think the way they do. For example, *Happiness is winning an argument with your sister* and *happiness is striking out the other team's best hitter* (from *Peanuts*, by C. Schultz) certainly include culturally loaded events that signify great joy and pleasure in American culture. Teachers should discuss sibling rivalry and the excitement and feelings of fans in baseball games. They can also ask students to answer the following questions:

a. What conceptual images do these metaphors present?
b. What do these images represent in American culture?
c. How do you finish the metaphor *happiness is* ... in your language?
d. What kinds of conceptual images do love or happiness present in your culture?

4. Describing Characteristic Behaviors

This step serves to explain and describe the conceptual images in the metaphors. Generally speaking, verbs and adjectives can be used to describe the feelings, emotions, and behaviors associated with the images. For example, in the *time is money* metaphor, we conceptualize the image of time as a valuable commodity. The verbs *buy, sell, borrow, spend, save, earn,* and *invest* describe the behaviors associated with the image. In the metaphor *love is hell, hell* can be conceptualized as *depression, unbearable suffering, and torture* and the characteristic behaviors associated with the

image are naturally *hate, suffer, torture, wither,* and even *die.* Teachers may ask students to supply all the verbs or adjectives that describe vividly the characteristics of the mental (or conceptual) images. They can ask the following questions to get students' responses:

a. What conceptual image does this metaphor present?
b. What verbs or adjectives can you think of to describe the image in this metaphor?
c. Do the verbs or adjectives you have chosen adequately reflect the meaning of this metaphor?

5. Illustrating the Metaphorical Concept

Having gone through the previous steps, teachers should provide further examples to illustrate the metaphorical concepts and images just discussed. For instance, the conceptual image of the metaphor *argument is war* can be illustrated further with the following examples:

a. Your position on immigration is *indefensible.*
b. The committee's proposals were all *shot down* by the president.
c. When writing argumentative papers, you need to *attack* all the arguments made by your opponent.
d. You can never *win* an argument with him.
e. If you use that strategy in your debate, he will *wipe you out.*
f. His sharp criticisms are *right on target.*
g. His opponent *demolished* his argument on abortion.

The different steps of teaching ESL students to understand English metaphors and their cultural images can be summarized in the following table:

TABLE 1
Suggested Steps in Teaching English Metaphors

Themes & Connection (Source = Target)	Conceptual Image	Characteristic Behavior	Metaphors	Extended Metaphors
time = money	a valuable commodity	buy, sell, borrow, save, invest, spend, waste, earn	Time is money.	Don't *waste my time* with the minor details.
argument = war	fighting/rivalry/ contention	hold positions, attack, defend	Argument is war.	He *shot down* all of my arguments.
love = journey	relationship/ going places	travel by different means	Love is a journey.	This relationship is *stuck.*
life = food	sweet/delicious/ bitter	taste, enjoy	Life is a bowl of cherries.	You have to *taste life* before you know how bitter it can be.
world = stage	assuming roles	act, perform, role-play	The world is a stage.	I work hard and *play my part* well.
working = playing sports	competition/ teamwork	cooperate, try one's best, compete, win, lose	Working is playing sports.	Jim is *a team player.*

The suggested steps serve as an example of how to use metaphors to introduce American cultural thoughts and behaviors. ESL students can follow this worksheet to either practice given metaphors or to create their own to use in their writing.

CONCLUSION

This discussion and exploration have demonstrated that English metaphors are indeed pervasive in our daily life, and the English language is, in fact, a metaphorical language. English metaphors can be a tool to introduce American cultural thought and behaviors to ESL students. The understanding of English metaphors is not just a matter of understanding certain useful English expressions; it is understanding the conceptual images Americans possess for their cultural environment which, in turn, shape their language and behaviors.

THE AUTHOR

Carl Zhonggang Gao is an Assistant Professor of English at the University of Wisconsin, River Falls, where he teaches courses in composition, history of English, TESOL methods, practicum, and linguistics. His research interests include application of linguistic theories in language education, teacher education, and grammar theories. He has a forthcoming book in press entitled *A Practical Grammar for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.*

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APPENDIX

Examples of Metaphors

Expressions related to *time is money*.

1. I don't have enough *time to spare* for that.
2. We're *running out of time*.
3. As students, you have to *budget your time* well to make it in college.
4. You have to *put aside* at least two or three hours a week for some exercises.
5. He's living on *borrowed time*.
6. If you want to *use your time profitably*, you will have to schedule it.
7. I *lost a lot of time* when I got stuck in the snowstorm.

Expressions related to *working is playing sports*.

1. He *plays by the book*.
2. Employees will have to *toe the line* if they want to stay in the company.
3. I'd like to *give it my best shot*.
4. After repeated failed attempts by others, the senior analyst decided to *have a shot at it*.
5. If you wish to stay on the *team*, you will have to *pull your weight*.
6. This deal is *slam-dunk*.
7. The governor is *out in left field* according to the news media.
8. She has a good *track record*.
9. The first part of my presentation was a bomb, but I was *saved by the bell*.
10. He is *behind the eight ball*.
11. I don't think the competition is a fair one because she has the *inside track*.
12. Now that the mayor lost his election, it's a *whole new ballgame* for the city.
13. Our competitor in the business has finally *thrown in the towel*.
14. You will have to understand that you *win some*, you *lose some*; you *can't win them all*. That's *the way the ball bounces*.
15. She *plays* (knows) *all the angles*.
16. They have already *cleared the first hurdle/gotten to first base*.
17. We need to *keep/get the ball rolling* for those new programs.
18. His campaign is off to a *running start*.
19. The new manager seems to *know the ropes*.
20. Our new boss is a *heavy hitter*.

An Alternative Model for Novice-Level Elementary ESL Education

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School professionals are often dissatisfied with current models of ESL elementary education. This paper will present an alternative model of delivery of instruction for novice speakers of English which was piloted in one St. Paul elementary school last year. After reviewing current models of instruction and their historical context, the writers explain why this school decided to try an alternative model that addressed the scheduling, social and academic issues that are often problems with traditional models. They present the process for developing the new model, how the model works, and the resulting benefits to the students and teachers.

School professionals are often dissatisfied with current models of ESL elementary education. The typical 30-45 minute pull-out session often frustrates ESL teachers because the amount of time is inadequate and frustrates mainstream teachers because of the class time that ESL students miss. Teachers involved in inclusion models sometimes feel their expertise is not being utilized, and believe that ESL students need some time away from their native English-speaking peers to be comfortable practicing their language skills. Teachers of self-contained ESL classes often believe that their students have too little academic and social interaction with the rest of the school.

KAREN'S STORY

The first students always reached the library before the end of the line had left the classroom. "They're like tumbleweeds," a colleague observed as my thirty students rolled and bounced loudly down the hall. "You're the only English speaker in the room?" people would exclaim in amazement when I described my job as a teacher in a self-contained elementary ESL program for students with low level English proficiency. "How do you do it?" teachers asked when I tried to explain my complicated system of six reading groups and two math groups for three grade levels with about one hour of assistance from a bilingual assistant. From the students I heard language like this: "Miss Du, he say, 'I not he friend'

and he fight me but I not fight he and he take a pencil do like this to me and he say I cheat he line." Such approximate English was their primary way of communicating to me as I navigated them through the complicated routine of each day.

My self-contained ESL class had as many or more students than the mainstream classes in my school, more grade levels to serve, and less paraprofessional assistance. I had little communication or collaboration with the teachers in the building who were serving the same grade levels. There were many behavior issues in the class, and the retention rate of students was high, that is, the students didn't move out of the program quickly. Upon exiting from the program, many students were placed in grades below their ages, because they were not academically able to enter the mainstream at grade level. I was particularly concerned about how the self-contained class isolated ESL students from their most important role models for language, culture and behavior: their native speaking peers. I believed that their isolation led to the pidgin-like exchange quoted above, and behavior that was not consistent with school norms.

These problems led my colleagues and me to consider designing a new model that would serve these students better than the self-contained classrooms had. In order to explain how the self-contained classroom model came into existence, we will begin this paper with a brief historical review of ESL education in Minnesota. We will then review models of instruction currently in use in the state to present some of the alternatives that different school districts have used. This article will then relate the process that we undertook to change the status quo, describe the model that we designed, and report on how students are faring under the new model.

BACKGROUND

The need for ESL students to be provided with appropriate instruction in English in the public elementary and secondary schools is fairly well-accepted among educators in Minnesota currently. The U.S. Supreme Court case *Lau v. Nichols* (1974) established the legal basis mandating both appropriate instruction and access to the curriculum for ESL students. Subsequently, the state established both ESL and bilingual licensure rules (1982), which had the effect of mandating that students with non-English language backgrounds be provided service from teachers who have professional credentials in the area of second language education. (See Edstam, 1998, for a discussion of professionalism and the elementary ESL teacher.) Although most educators now agree that schools should provide ESL students with special services, there is no universal agreement about how or by whom such services should be delivered.

Program Models for Elementary ESL Students

Peregoy and Boyle (1997) describe in detail program models that are found across the United States. These include a variety of bilingual education programs which work well when a large concentration of one language group is found in a school. Both Minneapolis and St. Paul have some bilingual programs for Hmong, Hispanic and Somali students. However, most districts in Minnesota have not chosen to implement bilingual programs. In many cases they do not have the requisite concentration of one language group. In other cases administrators may not be convinced that the model is an effective option, even though research shows that some types of bilingual programs produce the most positive outcomes for students (Baker, 1997; Collier, 1992; Cummins, 1981). By far, the most popular option has been some kind of model where English is the primary language of instruction (Mabbott and Strohl, 1992), and first language support is available to varying degrees from bilingual educational assistants. In the St. Paul Public Schools, educational assistants are used primarily for translation of instructions and for home-school contact.

At the elementary level, the pull-out model (Mabbott and Strohl, 1992) is found most frequently in Minnesota. Typically, children are pulled out of their mainstream classroom for 30-50 minutes a day of ESL instruction. Advantages of this model include providing concentrated instruction according to student need in a setting where ESL students' needs are not subsumed by the demands of the larger class. The major disadvantages of the model are scheduling the class so that students do not miss important content in their mainstream setting, and the coordination of curriculum with the mainstream staff. Mabbott and Strohl (1992) discuss these issues in depth.

Pull-in, or inclusion, models of elementary ESL instruction are not as common as the pull-out model, but they are gaining popularity. Hale Elementary School in Minneapolis pioneered this model in the early 1990's. In the pull-in model, the ESL teacher goes into the mainstream class and team teaches with the mainstream teachers. When all teachers have planning time and are willing to work together, this model can work well. It addresses the scheduling issue, which is the major problem with the pull-out model. The major disadvantage is that ESL students are not provided a safe environment away from native-speaking peers where they can practice language and ask questions that they may not ask in the mainstream class. (For a more in-depth discussion of the pull-in/inclusion model, see Mabbott and Strohl, 1992.)

Another model found in Minnesota at the elementary level is the English language development program (Peregoy and Boyle, 1997). In such

programs, novice English proficiency students are served in self-contained classes with a teacher who has knowledge of second language development, and is also responsible for teaching the whole curriculum, including math, science and social studies. Newcomer classes, a type of language development program, are intended generally to be a short-term transition into the mainstream for recent arrivals. (Rochester, MN has such a program.) Other English language development programs may last a longer time and also serve students who were born in the United States but have few English skills upon entering the school system. The major advantage of these models is that they focus on ESL learner needs exclusively. The disadvantage has been that they isolate students in a separate classroom where they cannot benefit from role models provided by fluent English-speaking peers. This isolation prevents the interaction which is necessary to promote second language acquisition (Long, 1985).

St. Paul's Self-Contained ESL Model ("TESOL")

The TESOL[1] program, common in St. Paul until 1999, was an English language development program that served novice English proficiency level students. Schools which housed TESOL centers usually had two classrooms, one for primary grades (1-3) and one for intermediate grades (4-6). When the TESOL program was created, most of the students were newcomers to the U.S. In more recent years, however, students have also been placed in TESOL upon completion of kindergarten, with eligibility determined by the St. Paul Kindergarten TESOL Academic Test. In addition, low proficiency level students moving into St. Paul from other districts can be placed in TESOL based on language proficiency scores from the Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey (1993).

Until the development of the model described in this paper, TESOL classrooms were self-contained, often with many language groups and grade levels represented in each class. Students had some opportunities to be integrated with mainstream students, but the amount and type of integration varied from school to school, and the interaction was quite limited. Some years, due to high numbers of second language students coming into St. Paul, class sizes in TESOL were significantly larger than in mainstream classes, with limited help from bilingual educational assistants. Dissatisfaction with the lack of opportunity for students to interact with native English-speaking peers and large class sizes led teachers at Frost Lake School to consider changing the model.

Frost Lake Elementary School

Frost Lake School is located on the east side of St. Paul, in a predominately working-class neighborhood. Because Frost Lake is a magnet school, students come from all over the city. However, the majority of

Frost Lake's approximately 600 students are from the east side. In the past decade, Frost Lake has seen a dramatic increase in the number of second language students. In 1993, about 47% of students spoke a first language other than English. In 1999, approximately 65% were non-native English speakers. Frost Lake's largest population group is Hmong, which comprises 61% of the student body. Other minority groups make up only 8% of the school, with European-American students comprising 31%. Forty-six percent of Frost Lake students receive some ESL services; the number receiving TESOL services has varied from 3-8%. Sixty-four percent of Frost Lake students receive free or reduced lunch.

Instruction at Frost Lake is delivered in a traditional elementary setting, serving students in kindergarten through sixth grade. One teacher provides direct instruction in all subject areas to a class of 21-28 students.

DESIGNING A NEW MODEL

Because of the problems with the self-contained language development model (isolation of students, lack of native-speaking role models, high rates of retention, behavior issues and large class sizes), concerned staff members at Frost Lake decided to design a better way to serve our novice English language students. Our team of mainstream classroom teachers, ESL teachers, curriculum specialists and the principal began meeting in the spring of 1997. We met throughout the 1997-98 school year with each other, district officials and university consultants from the area. We discussed best practices, philosophies, scheduling, placement issues, and budgets. Our principal, a very strong advocate for instituting a new model, convinced district administration that the initial extra costs would be money well spent. The new model would result in higher academic achievement by students, and would save the district money in the long run by meeting academic needs earlier.

Goals of the Program

In designing the new program, we had four goals. First, we sought to design a model in which students would have as many opportunities as possible for participation with mainstream peers in grade level curricula and classroom routines and activities. By integrating the students instead of isolating them, we believed we would see improvement over previous years in both their social development and their language acquisition.

Second, we hoped to include as much first-language support as possible. Instead of simply translating lessons after the fact, or having interpreters repeat everything in Hmong, we decided students would work initially with concepts and skills in their first language with a bilingual educational assistant when possible. After they had discussed a concept

in Hmong, it would then be introduced in English by the ESL or mainstream teacher. (See Baker, 1997; Hakuta, 1986; and Krashen, 1993, for a discussion of the advantages of pre-teaching concepts in the native language.)

Our third goal in designing the program was to offer more individual attention to students. Since they had not been fully successful at acquiring English in kindergarten, where most received limited ESL services, we wanted to increase the amount of time spent in small-group, sheltered instruction, which would focus on the needs of the second language learner.

Finally, we sought to decrease the total amount of time spent in the TESOL program, and to decrease the number of students who were placed, upon exiting, in grade levels below their ages. We knew they would still require many more years to achieve full academic proficiency in English (Collier, 1989), but we hoped that our inclusion model could accelerate the process. Ultimately, we hoped to exit most or all of our students, after one or two years in the program, into their correct grade level, rather than placing them in classes below their age level. After exiting, students would receive more limited ESL support until they no longer met the eligibility criteria.

After we had set our goals, we worked with district officials to set parameters to limit the numbers and types of students we would serve during a two-year pilot period. Instead of trying to serve all of the needs of the diverse ESL population, we wanted to start small. With some persuasion, the school district agreed to our requests. Since we wanted to use an educational assistant for extensive first language teaching, we needed a homogeneous language group. The majority of Frost Lake students are Hmong, so that group was the obvious choice. Similarly, since our old self-contained program had served mostly students coming out of kindergarten, rather than newcomers to the United States, we decided to tailor the new program to meet those students' needs. Therefore, we began with only first grade Hmong students who had attended kindergarten in St. Paul and qualified for self-contained language development services. During the second year, we would also serve second graders, but only those students who needed to remain a second year in the program. With our goals set, and parameters agreed upon, in the spring of 1998, our two-year pilot project, named the TESOL Inclusion Program (TIP), was approved to begin in September, 1998.

Students' Schedule

From the first day of school, TIP students were placed in mainstream first grades. Unlike students in the former model, who had been isolated within the school, they were always identified as members of those first

grade classrooms for daily routine purposes (lunch, computer lab, and prep-time classes such as art and science). Staff members did not differentiate TIP students in any way from their mainstream peers.

In addition to mainstream instruction, TIP students received services in and outside of their classrooms from their ESL teacher and bilingual educational assistant (E.A.). The ESL teacher worked with students at three times: reading, language and math. The educational assistant helped with reading and math lessons, and provided individual tutoring, home communications and other classroom support throughout the day. (See Appendix A for exact teacher and E.A. schedules.) The general student schedule was as follows:

8:00 - 8:20 Opening, Attendance, Calendar, etc.
8:20 - 9:10 Physical Education, Science+, Music or Art (rotating)
9:10 - 9:45 Language Arts/ESL
9:45 - 10:45 Reading
10:45 - 11:45 Language Arts/Writing, Spelling, Grammar
11:45 - 12:15 Lunch
12:15 - 12:30 Story Time
12:30 - 1:15 Math*
1:15 - 2:20 Social Studies, Art, Writing, or other activities

Times in bold taught by ESL teacher outside of the homeroom
+ Indicates E.A. present (without ESL teacher), providing first-language support
* Indicates ESL teacher and E.A. team-teaching in homeroom with mainstream teacher

Reading

Reading is taught at Frost Lake in small, instructional-level groups by all classroom and specialist teachers. Many of the groups are taught by ESL teachers. Therefore, for one hour each day, most students in first grade work with a teacher other than their homeroom teacher. The reading structure was convenient for the development of the new TIP model, as TIP students could simply go to their ESL teacher for reading instruction. Since all students were changing classrooms, and were working with different teachers, TIP students were not distinguished from other students. They could have the benefit of small-group, sheltered reading instruction without the stigma and scheduling concerns of pull-out.

Since we wanted TIP students to be working with grade-level curricula as much as possible, the teacher used the first grade state standards as a guide for reading instruction and taught using the first grade reading series. The educational assistant provided first language preteaching and support for stories and skills in the reading curriculum. Instruction was paced somewhat slower than with other groups, as lan-

guage was taught in conjunction with reading skills throughout every lesson. The teacher also supplemented the reading series with leveled, controlled readers at students' instructional levels.

Math

Unlike reading, math at Frost Lake is usually taught in a large, whole-class setting. Since math is often more accessible to second language students than reading, we wanted to keep TIP students in the classroom for math instruction. Therefore, the ESL teacher team-taught math with the classroom teacher and bilingual educational assistant. The bilingual educational assistant did pre-teaching in Hmong for the TIP students, and sometimes for the entire class. In planning and implementing math lessons, the classroom teacher remained the main driver of the math curriculum, using state standards and the district-adopted math textbook as guides. The ESL teacher provided continuous input on how to adapt lessons and activities to make them accessible for TIP students. Lead teaching roles were shared between the two teachers.

Pull-out Language Time

In addition to reading and math, the ESL teacher had one pull-out session with TIP students each day. For one half hour, students worked with the ESL teacher in what resembled a traditional pull-out ESL class. During this time, work focused on developing oral language skills through conversation, singing, role-playing and chanting. Another objective was to expand students' basic English vocabulary in areas such as school, family, foods, clothing, body, home, and community. Frequent writing activities were included to teach and reinforce reading and writing skills while supporting vocabulary development.

Bilingual Educational Assistant (E.A.)

As mentioned above, the bilingual educational assistant worked in conjunction with the ESL teacher during reading group and math class sessions. We knew that research supports the use of the first language to enhance academic achievement (Auerbach, 1993; Collier, 1992; Cummins, 1981; Hakuta, 1986; Krashen, 1996; Lucas and Katz, 1994). Therefore, in our new program, we decided that the bilingual E.A.'s role in instruction should be expanded. The E.A. did extensive teaching in Hmong, usually pre-teaching skills and concepts that would be introduced later in English. In reading class, he also led discussions of stories we had read. With the use of Hmong, students received continual reinforcement of concepts in their first language. Traditionally, bilingual paraprofessional staff have been used as translators, which often leads to students ignoring English instruction and waiting for their first language. In TIP, the

first language was used to enhance students' understanding of lessons.

In addition to teaching in Hmong within small-group and classroom instruction, the E.A. provided individual short-term tutoring for students as needed. When a student was struggling with a particular skill or concept, the E.A. would work with the student for 15-30 minutes daily for up to two weeks. The classroom or ESL teacher would assign tasks for the student to complete with the E.A.'s assistance.

Another important role of the educational assistant was home-school communication. The E.A. made weekly contact with TIP students' families about numerous issues relating to the health, behavior, and academic progress of their children. When correspondence was sent home to parents about field trips, testing, parent-teacher conferences, or other issues, he explained the content to students and then called families to be sure they had received the information. When telephone contact was not adequate to meet student needs, he made home visits. In the homes, he explained school correspondence and modeled homework supervision for students who were not completing assignments. When parents could not come to school, the E.A. facilitated parent-teacher conferences in the home.

In addition to regular contact with families, the E.A. also led two informational meetings at school for parents. Families came to know and trust the E.A. and called often to ask questions about their children. The children sensed the home-school connection and responded well to the greater accountability it fostered.

Assessment and Reporting

In the past, in pull-out programs, the ESL teacher has had little or no direct accountability for reporting progress. The lack of opportunity to be involved in the reporting process sometimes leads to diminished professional status for the ESL teacher. In our model, since the ESL teacher and classroom teacher shared much of the teaching of TIP students, we wanted assessment and reporting to be shared as well. With TIP, we wanted to establish a new model for shared accountability and reporting which would work within the limited planning time available to all teachers.

We decided that both the ESL and classroom teachers would collect samples of student work for a portfolio. Then, each teacher would complete the report card for subjects in which she taught the TIP students. The ESL teacher reported for reading and language, and the classroom teacher reported for social studies. For math, which was taught collaboratively, the ESL teacher and classroom teacher completed the report together. The personal and social growth section of the report card was also completed jointly by the classroom and ESL teachers. The ap-

propriate specialists reported for physical education, art, music and science.

To enable the two teachers to report together, a substitute was provided for the ESL teacher for one day, and for each classroom teacher for one hour on that day. The ESL teacher met with each teacher to complete the math reporting, compare notes in all areas, and finalize the entire report card. At parent-teacher conference time, each parent met with the classroom teacher, ESL teacher, and bilingual E.A. together. All three staff provided information about the child's progress to parents, with the E.A. serving as interpreter when necessary.

BENEFITS OF THE NEW PROGRAM

Over the course of the year, we noted several specific advantages of the new TIP program. First, TIP students were fully integrated into the mainstream. Several specialist teachers remarked that, even several months into the year, they could not distinguish between TIP and mainstream students. Instead of being isolated in a class with fewer resources and less access to authentic English, TIP students participated fully in assemblies, field trips, fund raisers, and all aspects of school life in a way they had not before. Instead of being perceived as a strange, special class down the hall, TIP students had the same opportunities to be known, liked and respected as everyone else. In addition, teachers were able to work collaboratively for the first time, which benefited both TIP and non-TIP students. Working in the new model forced the ESL teacher to become familiar with the mainstream curriculum and the standards which all students are expected to meet. The collaboration also helped mainstream teachers learn how to serve their ESL students more effectively.

Language and Social Development

Because of their exposure to mainstream peer role models, TIP students spoke more standard English and less pidgin-like English. Instead of, "He cheat my line," we heard, "He budged." Instead of, "I drink water?" we heard, "Can I go get a drink?" Such examples were numerous, and we documented them throughout the year. More exposure to positive role models also seemed to lead to TIP students exhibiting fewer behavior problems. We theorized that TIP students were less likely to misbehave because of exposure to mainstream role models who understood what was expected of them in school.

Our system of providing first language instruction was also a great advantage to TIP students. They seemed to be willing to take more risks and engage more readily when they knew they could use their first language if needed. While one might think that frequent instruction in

Hmong would hinder the development of English skills, we found the opposite to be true. We observed that TIP students were better able to participate in class discussions, and their reading and math skills also improved more rapidly than their counterparts in the earlier self-contained model. We attributed the improvement, in part, to first language instruction. Indeed, research has shown that, if students gain academic skills in their first language, they will be able to transfer them to a second language (Collier, 1989, 1992; Cummins, 1984).

Benefits for Non-TIP Students

While much of our focus in planning and evaluating TIP was on how to provide better services to those students in the program, it should be noted that our mainstream students also benefited from TIP. First, our class sizes at first grade were smaller than they had ever been previously. By using the former self-contained program room as an additional mainstream first grade, we spread our first grade students out and reduced class sizes. Second, in math classes, where the classroom teacher, ESL teacher and bilingual E.A. team-taught, the whole class often heard parts of lessons in Hmong. Non-Hmong speakers actually came to understand the language to some extent, and often participated even during Hmong instruction. All students gained appreciation and respect for the Hmong language as a valid vehicle for academic discussion and learning.

FORMAL EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAM

In addition to the informal observation of students, we used several formal tools to evaluate the efficacy of the program. First we compared placement of the TIP students after one year to placements of students from previous TESOL classes from Frost Lake. Next we used data gathered by the district on student academic performance in the areas of reading fluency and math computation and compared TIP student growth to that of a class of comparable students from a TESOL classroom at another school. Finally, we surveyed classroom teachers and specialists who worked with TIP students about changes they observed and summarized their responses.

Exiting/Placement Data

As stated previously, students may remain in St. Paul's TESOL program for up to two years. However, our goal in TIP was to exit as many students as possible after one year. At the end of first grade, our TIP teacher, like all TESOL teachers in St. Paul, determined students' readiness for exiting using the district criteria:

Language Acquisition

Retell story with picture stimuli
Follow three-part directions
Respond to yes/no questions
Share personal experiences orally

Reading

Read at mid-first grade level (according to district standards)

Math

Perform at mid-first grade level (according to district standards)

Writing

Write three sentences about a picture (accurate grammar, syntax and spelling not required)

Exiting results from the first year appear promising. In the mid-1990's, Frost Lake exited only 0-8% of students from the self-contained class into their correct grades. In the first year of TIP, 29% of students were placed in the age-appropriate grade after receiving one year of TIP services. After the second year of TIP, we project that 40% of students will exit into their correct grade levels.

Student Academic Performance

The St. Paul school district decided that it would administer several tests to the TIP students and compare their results to a comparable class which operated under the old self-contained TESOL model. In both cases all participating students in the testing were Hmong, and all had qualified for the language development TESOL program based on the district's Kindergarten TESOL Academic Test. Teachers of both classes were deemed to be strong teachers by administrators in the district.

A statistical analysis (t-test) of the Kindergarten TESOL Academic Test scores, administered in November of the academic year, showed that there was no significant difference between the two classes in the fall. Similarly, a t-test done on reading fluency (number of words read correctly in one minute on three increasingly difficult passages) and a timed math computation test (addition and subtraction problems) administered in November showed that there was no significant difference between the two groups in the fall.

Retesting of identical reading and math measures in May showed that the experimental group, the Frost Lake TIP class, made greater gains than the traditional self-contained TESOL class. A summary of the data can be found in the following tables:

TABLE 1
Kindergarten TESOL Academic Test

Fall Frost Lake TIP Average Score n=13	Fall Comparison Class Average Score n=10
147.8 (out of 200)	138.5 (out of 200)

Kindergarten fall tests are not significantly different (p-value .24, p>.20).

TABLE 2
Reading Fluency Test

Fall Frost Lake TIP Average n=13	Spring Frost Lake TIP Average n=13	Fall Comparison Class Average n=10	Spring Comparison Class Average n=10
20.6	113.1	26.8	63

Fall results are not significantly different (p-value .84, p>.80).
Spring results are significant at the .02 level (p-value .016, p<.02).

TABLE 3
Timed Math Computation Test

Fall Frost Lake TIP Average n=13	Spring Frost Lake TIP Average n=13	Fall Comparison Class Average n=10	Spring Comparison Class Average n=10
1.4	11.8	.9	5.9

Fall results are not significantly different (p-value .36, p>.10).
Spring results are significant at the .10 level (p-value .06, p<.10).

These academic test results suggest that the new TIP model appears to be more effective in promoting students academic performance in reading fluency and math computation than the traditional self-contained TESOL model.

Staff Survey

Like the comparison of placement data, our survey of staff who worked with TIP students also showed the new program to be a success. The survey was completed by classroom teachers and the physical education, music, art and science specialists. (See Appendix B for survey questions.) In previous years, specialists' classes had been two thirds mainstream and one third from the TESOL class. In the new program, their classes had three TIP students each. When asked how TIP students

had been successful and what they had gained, teachers said that the TIP students in their classes participated more than their counterparts from the self-contained program had. One first grade teacher wrote, "They have all been successful in keeping up with the class..." From another: "Their language grew by leaps and bounds and they were an essential part of the life of our class..." Several of the teachers observed that TIP students had more English-speaking friends, and thus more English-speaking role models. As one teacher summarized, "Their oral skills are great. They don't feel like outcasts. They have a classroom of peers where they fit in and have English-speaking role models....The children have all benefited both academically and socially from this model."

In the surveys, teachers also indicated that they had adapted their instruction to meet the needs of TIP students. Teachers employed the use of many common techniques for making language comprehensible: "My instruction is much more specific and contains more hands-on examples." "I talk more slowly..." "I try to use physical examples as I talk." "I do more cooperative groups,...and they have learned a lot from each other." (See Krashen, 1982, for a list of more techniques.) The adaptations the teachers describe are widely acknowledged characteristics of good teaching in general, and certainly benefited all of the children in the class. One teacher wrote, "The changes have been good for all my students, since many of my kids are Hmong...." Another said, "I think [the instruction] benefits all students." As mentioned above, changes in instruction helped socially as well as academically: "Those who are not Hmong have learned to feel empathy and understanding."

When asked about the overall success of the TIP model at Frost Lake, teachers' responses were extremely positive: "I feel the partnership with parents, students, ESL teacher, E.A. and me has been good for <u>all</u> the students." "Yes!...They have succeeded in learning the skills I needed to teach them and I think they feel good about themselves." And finally,

> I feel we have given these students the environment and academic support to build self-confident and successful life-long learners. They are no longer isolated and made to feel different. They are given the one-on-one or small group support they need without being grouped in multi-aged, non-English speaking classrooms with little or no support.

ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

In the planning and implementation of TIP at Frost Lake, we encountered many issues and challenges that we needed to address. All staff involved had to change the way they viewed students and the way they delivered instruction. In addition, there were several logistical challenges

which we had to face.

Ownership of Students

Teachers in the new program had to become accustomed to a new understanding of the "ownership" of students. In the past, because students spent most of the day in one classroom, teachers knew their students very well. Students were usually only pulled out for short times, and classroom teachers usually believed they had to make up what students had missed. Overall, teachers felt responsible for students' progress in all subject areas. They had a clear sense of "my students" versus "your students" and were uncomfortable with the notion of sharing.

In our new model, teachers had to undergo a significant shift in their view of responsibility for student progress. Instead of teachers being accountable for students' progress in all areas, teachers had to learn to trust their colleagues and share that responsibility. For example, TIP students were taught most reading and all math outside of the classroom, so the classroom teacher was not always aware of students' particular needs and challenges. However, by consistently sharing information with each other, and gradually working on letting go, the team of teachers was able to achieve a feeling of shared ownership of students.

Teaming and Collaboration

With shared ownership of students comes the need for significant collaboration between teachers. We found that we needed not only to plan team-teaching lessons together, but also to discuss specific problems students were having, behavioral incidents, progress that had been made, themes and skills being taught in the classrooms, scheduling of tutoring time with the E.A., and many other issues. In addition, twice during the year, we needed to meet together more formally to assess students' progress and complete report cards. Finding time for such working together was a significant challenge, but one which we managed quite successfully.

In order to plan collaborative lessons, the ESL teacher and classroom teachers usually met after school. In order to plan most efficiently, we defined our roles specifically. For example, when teaching math, the classroom teacher was responsible for steering the math curriculum, and the ESL teacher was responsible for adapting that curriculum to meet the needs of the ESL students. Most of our teachers' communication not related to lesson planning occurred in passing, in memos, or through the E.A. For reviewing student progress and completing report cards, we were fortunate to have substitutes provided for one day. With such extensive collaboration, it was essential to have that time away from the classroom to work together. Overall, we found that teachers involved in

the TIP program benefited from working closely together. We learned to be more flexible, and, through teaming, improved our teaching skills.

Qualifications of Teachers

Another obstacle we encountered in the process of implementing TIP at Frost Lake was the perception held by mainstream teachers that ESL teachers are not qualified to be students' primary reading teachers, and that classroom teachers are not qualified to teach novice English speakers. While it is true that some ESL teacher education programs do not focus as heavily on reading as others, we found at Frost Lake that our ESL teacher certainly had the experience and the skills to implement the TIP model. During the year, she participated in further training offered by the school, the district, and by one publisher in order to enhance her competence in teaching reading. In addition, in order to ensure consistency across the first grade in reading, the ESL teacher, like all teachers in the Frost Lake reading program, used the adopted reading series as the primary material for reading instruction and followed district and state standards to guide the TIP reading curriculum. Overall, we found the ESL teacher's understanding of the students' needs, and increased expertise, to be an asset to our students. As the year progressed, the perception of ESL teachers as not qualified to teach reading diminished and, again, our confidence in a system of shared ownership of students increased.

In addition to the ESL teacher's qualifications, we also had to address the perception among ESL teachers that classroom teachers were not qualified to teach novice English speakers. Actually, we found that our classroom teachers rose to the challenge. They already had significant experience working with second language learners because of Frost Lake's high percentage of ESL students. Also, they were committed to making TIP work, and thus worked to improve their knowledge of teaching second language learners. They were consistently aware of the need to adapt their instruction to meet TIP students' needs. The ESL teacher was often used as a resource for teaching suggestions or modeling methods. Finally, our first grade teachers attended district workshops and building-sponsored training sessions. Without the commitment of all teachers involved to improving and enhancing their skills, the issue of qualifications would have been much more difficult.

Costs of the TIP Model

The implementation of TIP was somewhat more expensive than the self-contained classroom was. To staff the program, we needed an additional first grade teacher (we increased the number of first grade classes from three to four) and a full-time educational assistant (we previously

had one quarter-time). Since we would serve fewer students in the new model than the self-contained class had, the lower student-teacher ratio also increased the cost. Finally, we needed substitutes for days when the ESL teacher and classroom teacher were provided planning time for report cards.

In the negotiations for the new model, we devised a plan for sharing costs between the district and the building. The district agreed to pay staffing costs, and Frost Lake's building budget covered substitute coverage for TIP teachers. Such cost-sharing was widely supported because everyone involved benefited from the new model.

Space

Like most elementary schools in St. Paul, Frost Lake is already overcrowded, and seems to become more so each year. With the addition of numerous support teachers in Title I, ESL, and special education, the need for small, pull-out classroom spaces has increased dramatically. Unfortunately, the implementation of TIP only added to an already difficult space situation. However, in planning the model, we felt it was crucial that TIP students still have a space outside of the classroom where sheltered instruction could occur. The main advantage of the self-contained classroom in the old program was that students could feel comfortable taking risks in English, and we wanted to be certain that a similarly supportive environment was available in TIP. Our principal, who supported the development of the program in many areas, guaranteed that TIP would have a space outside of the classrooms. While the TIP space was small, it provided the safety that students needed to take risks and participate more willingly in class.

Prior to TIP, the TESOL program had been supplied with most of the materials found in a mainstream classroom. The program had math manipulatives and textbooks, reading materials, all texts from the district ESL curriculum adoption, and many other miscellaneous materials. With the implementation of the new program, and the move by the ESL teacher into a much smaller space, the materials of the old program could no longer be stored in one central location. Furthermore, the ESL teacher was no longer teaching all subjects and therefore did not need all the materials. Our solution to the storage problem turned out to be beneficial to all. We used many of the former TESOL materials to outfit the new first grade classroom. The ESL teacher kept what she needed to teach reading and language in her small space, and other materials were shared with kindergarten and first grade teachers as needed. Much in the way we had adapted to a new shared ownership of students, we also became accustomed to sharing materials.

CONCLUSION

Throughout the entire process of planning TIP, we encountered the issues above and many others. Numerous times we thought that the district bureaucracy would prevent us from implementing the program. However, eventually we reached agreement and were able to proceed. In retrospect, it has become evident that there were four key factors in our success at implementing the new model. First, all of the staff involved were invested in the success of the model. As mentioned above, instead of simply moving the burden of teaching the novice students from one teacher to another, we were intent upon making the new model beneficial to everyone, students and teachers. Second, we took over one year to plan the model and work out all details prior to the students' first day. In fact, we could have started one year earlier, but we decided to delay implementation until we could have time to anticipate all problems and fully discuss all aspects of the new model. Third, we had the benefit of a strong, committed principal on our team. She repeatedly acted as an advocate for our building, our teachers, and, most importantly, our TIP students. She took risks and negotiated compromises which, in the end, were critical to the success of the program. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, each member of our team was committed, flexible, and willing to change the way things had always been done because of the common goal of providing the best education possible to all students.

After one year of TIP, at the time of this writing, the program looks very promising. We were able to provide first language support and extra attention in an environment that maximized interaction with the mainstream. As a result, it appears we were able to enhance students' academic achievement. Now in its second year, the program has expanded and is serving both first and second graders. The district is now promoting this model, among others, in a major initiative to reform the way ESL services are delivered for beginning English language learners. It is our hope that the changes will lead to a better education for the increasing number of ESL students in St. Paul and throughout the area.

NOTE

[1] The designation TESOL used in this article stands for St. Paul's self-contained ESL model and is not to be confused with the organization Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

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APPENDIX A

Daily Schedules

Daily Schedule - ESL Teacher

8:00 - 8:15	Prep
8:15 - 9:00	Math A* - in room 107
9:10 - 9:45	Language Arts/ESL B* - in TESOL room (134)
9:45 - 10:45	**Reading B - in TESOL room (134)**
10:45 - 11:45	**Reading A - in TESOL room (134)**
11:45 - 12:15	Lunch
12:15 - 12:30	Meet with Educational Assistant
12:30 - 1:15	Math B* - in room 111
1:15 - 1:50	Language Arts/ESL A* - in TESOL room (134)
1:50 - 2:20	Prep

NOTE: Classrooms serving TIP students were clustered into two groups, "A" and "B." "A" classrooms received services at "A" times, and "B" classrooms received services at "B" times.
Times in bold taught by ESL teacher and E.A. outside of the homeroom.
*Indicates ESL Teacher and E.A. team-teaching in homeroom with mainstream teacher.

Daily Schedule - Educational Assistant

7:45 - 8:05	Hall - help TIP students with notes, bus, etc.
8:05 - 8:15	Phone calls/Meet with ESL Teacher
8:15 - 9:00	Math A*
9:00 - 9:45	Alternating every two weeks: - TIP ESL/Language Class - Science class+
9:45 - 10:45	**Reading B**
10:45 - 11:45	**Reading A**
11:45 - 12:15	Lunch
12:15 - 12:30	Meet with ESL Teacher
12:30 - 1:15	Math B*
1:15 - 1:50	Alternating daily: - Help in classrooms - Read individually with students
1:50 - 2:10	Individual tutoring
2:10 - 2:30	Hall Duty/Available to be in classes to explain important parent correspondence
2:30 - 3:15	Phone calls/Meet with ESL Teacher

NOTE: Classrooms serving TIP students were clustered into two groups, "A" and "B." "A" classrooms received services at "A" times, and "B" classrooms received services at "B" times.
Times in bold taught by ESL Teacher and E.A. outside of the homeroom.
* Indicates team-teaching with ESL teacher and mainstream teacher in the homeroom.
+Indicates E.A. providing first language support in mainstream class.

APPENDIX B

Frost Lake TESOL Inclusion Program (TIP)
Teacher Survey

1. How many TIP students are in your class?_____
How many students are in your class in total?_____

2. How have TIP students been successful in your class? In other words, what are they able to do well, along with the rest of the class? Please give specific examples.

3. What has been most difficult for TIP students in your class? Please give specific examples.

4. What do you feel that TIP students have gained from being in the mainstream that they would not gain in a self-contained TESOL class? Please give specific examples.

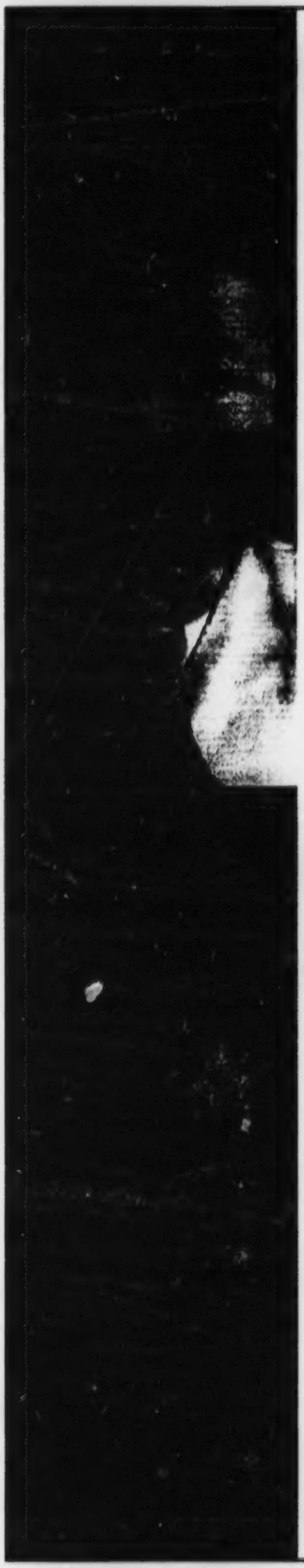
5. Do you notice significant discrepancies between mainstream students and TIP students in your class? In what areas?

6. How have you changed your instruction in order to meet the needs of your TIP students?

7. How have the above changes in your instruction affected the other students in your class?

8. Has the support--both academic and home/school liaison--provided by the TIP program been sufficient to help TIP students succeed? In what ways? What could have been improved?

9. In general, do you believe that TIP at Frost Lake has been successful? Why and how?



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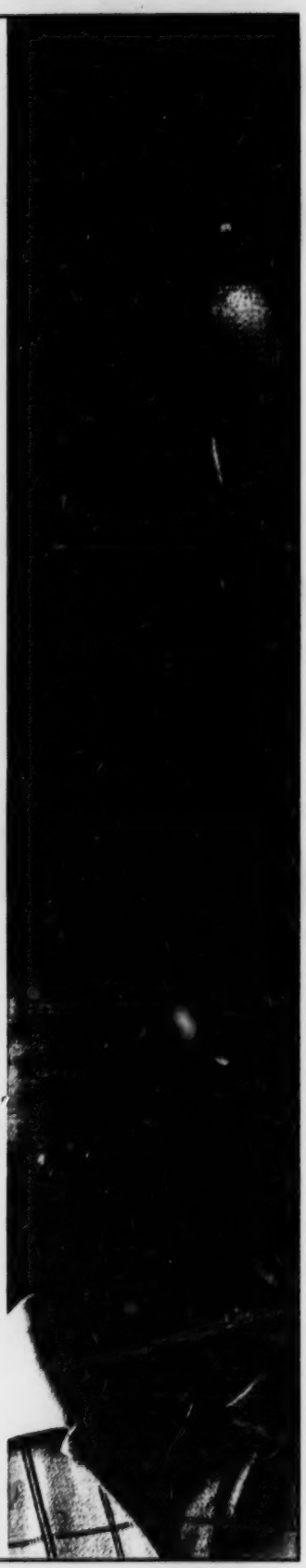

THE GREAT ESCAPE

At 7 am we leave Oshkosh and are on the road. Woo Hoo!
40 miles later, in Wautoma,
Laura, the neighbor girl,
leaves her retainer wrapped in a napkin at the breakfast cafe.
We go back there
and wait
and wait
and the waitresses tell us they looked through every tub
but somehow
they don't look like they got their hands dirty.
We drive on
a despondent Laura listening while Ariana
age three
tells her, at least five times,
"Laura, you shouldn't take your retainer into the restaurant!"
Orion, age five, asks,
"Dad, why don't you wear braces? You have crooked teeth."
"My teeth are a mark of distinction," I reply.
He remains unconvinced.

Our first brush with the law comes
south of Eau Claire
The moustachioed copper looks at the three young children,
the innocent mother and young adults,
and me
I am
humility
gentle ignorance
contrition
gratitude
He says,
"I am giving you a warning
Be careful, and slow down."
I never get tickets.

The hamster and the rat wake up in the darkness
while we try to sleep on Kathleen's friend Jan's
living room floor
In the gloom the sound of a creaky wheel

going round, and round, and round
I cross the room to their cages.
"Knock it off," I say in a gruff stage whisper,
"or you are really going to regret it."
The hamster stops his exercise routine momentarily
but begins again as soon as my back is turned
just like a kid.
We turn his wheel on its side
shutting down the gym for the evening.
Later, in the darkness,
the rat drinks noisily and continuously from his bottle.

We deplane in Seattle
and find the northbound bus.
Then we wait
and wait
and while we wait the driver tells us
"Folks, we're waiting for two people.
It's not my idea.
The big lady tells me I gotta wait
So I'm gonna wait."
He talks a lot as we head north
At the border he describes the immigration officers:
"Folks, we may get nice guys,
or we may get the troublemakers.
It depends on how it was last night.
Did they sleep in the bed,
Or did they sleep on the couch?"

The convention in Vancouver is great
when you find a good workshop
something that gets you involved, excited,
revved up with new ideas
It's hard when presenters talk all the time.
Outside it is raining
but we know intuitively
that the mountains are looming above the water
hidden in the mist

Ge and Katie take me downhill skiing
my first time
I am hooked
The mountain looks like a Christmas postcard

The lights of the city twinkle far below
And I
careening down the hill without poles
It's like surfing
and I don't even know how to surf.

Busted in North Vancouver
on the way back down the mountain
No plates
no registration
not our fault, it's a rental car, right?
But Ge brought along the wrong insurance card
so
we wait
and wait
and wait until the copper tells us we're getting off easy,
they are impounding the car
but she will call us a cab.

The next morning I am coming out of the bus terminal when I meet
someone more down on his luck than us
Mason busted his toe snowboarding
spent all his Canadian travellers cheques on the way to the airport
and once there,
they tell him he has to pay an airport tax of 36 dollars Canadian.
There is a block on his visa and no one wants his British cheques
"Do you believe in Karma?" he asks.
I give him enough for the bus and the tax.
"I am speechless," he says. "No one has ever done this for me."
I leave him my address.
"I promise I won't disappoint you."
Now, back to the room. Katie or Ge will have to buy me lunch.

Suzanne sits next to me on the bus to Seattle.
Her father is Persian
her mother is Filipina
She is beautiful
dark hair, brown eyes, brown skin and
a scar crossing below her right eye

the mark of a wild one
She is from Detroit
so we talk about growing up in Southern Michigan
She is in love with Vancouver,
the friendly people
the snowboarding
the food
She loves food except for
the pig blood soup her grandmother likes to make
She feels funny not knowing much Farsi or Tagalog
Her sister goes by her Persian name, Sahraya
Suzanne's Persian name is Mariam
We talk about our travels
about our parents
about having a family of one's own
She asks me how old I am and tells me
"It's great to talk normal with people your age,
no offense...you know what I mean?"

Katie and Ge and I spend our last night in Seattle
talking about our adventures
on the bus,
in the mountains,
with the cops,
It has been a great trip.

Katie adds,
"Oh yeah. I liked the conference, too."

Don Hones
March 2000

Wisconsin's Approach to Academic Assessment for Limited-English Proficient Students (LEP)[1]: Creating a Continuum of Assessment Options

Tim Boals
Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction

This article describes the approach the State of Wisconsin has taken to ensure that all English Language Learners (ELLs) are included within the state's academic accountability system. Wisconsin's approach provides a continuum of options from participation in standards-based classroom assessments to full participation in standardized testing. Alternate Performance Indicators (APIs) and a guide for their use create a framework for measuring the ongoing academic progress of ELLs, even at the beginning stages of English proficiency development. The framework also provides teachers of ELLs with guidance for developing content-based lessons that are fully aligned with the state's academic standards in math, science, social studies and language arts.

Recently, significant changes have occurred in federal law requiring the inclusion of all children in statewide, large-scale assessment in an effort to increase educational accountability at the district and school levels. The Improving America's Schools Act (IASA) of 1994 and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), as amended in 1997, both require districts to report to state departments of education data about student progress that are complete and disaggregated by educationally significant categories, including disability groups and limited proficiency in English.

For years many educational professionals advocated the exclusion of these students from standardized measures of student achievement, maintaining that the assessments lacked validity due to cultural and linguistic bias. Some went further by saying that such assessments were potentially harmful to special needs students, and that those students should not be held to the same standards as the general population. While some argue the assessments still raise the same issues of lack of appropriateness or cultural bias, today's educators lament the practice of exclu-

sion from statewide assessments, and thus from the accountability system. The shift in thinking regarding the assessment of students with disabilities and limited English proficiency is largely due to the realization that students who are left out of the accountability equation are too often left out of curricular reforms and program improvement efforts that increase student achievement.

Since at some level every assessment is an assessment of language proficiency, LaCelle, Peterson & Rivera (1994) maintain that there are very real validity concerns when LEP students, even at intermediate levels of English proficiency, participate in standardized assessments. The validity issue is much more a concern as student penalties, or "high stakes," are introduced. The dilemma, therefore, is how to ensure real accountability without resorting to assessments that are inappropriate.

The assessment policies that states adopt directly affect the curricular goals, instructional practices and educational outcomes for LEP students. While much has been written about the need for accountability in general, very little is specifically known about the impact current assessment policy decisions will have on the special needs students they are intended to serve. Furthermore, little is known about whether the individual, state-by-state variations in response to the federal legislation might have a positive or negative impact on these students.

In the era of accountability, states must grapple with the issue of how to enforce the "all means all" edict in accountability while insuring that assessments are reasonably fair and accurate measures of student progress. For many students, this will simply mean being included when they would not have been in the previous era. For others, it will mean taking the required assessments, but with appropriate testing accommodations to allow them to better demonstrate what they know and are able to do. For yet a third group of students[2], it may mean taking an alternate assessment or series of assessments that are, ideally, aligned with the same curricular goals and academic standards of other students, but presented in formats that respond to the unique needs of these learners (Zehler, Hopstock, Fleishman, & Greniuk, 1994; National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education [NCBE], 1997).

In this article I describe one state's approach to creating a continuum of academic assessment options from an alternate assessment framework for the local level to accommodations in large-scale testing where appropriate. I outline the approach the State of Wisconsin is taking to address the federal mandate for full inclusion of LEP students in the state assessment and accountability system. In so doing, I examine key issues and concerns by posing the following questions: What does it mean to say that LEP students are included in the accountability system? Where, within a continuum of state and local accountability, does it make the most sense

to place LEP students at various English proficiency levels? What are the policy implications or tradeoffs inherent in any system of accountability for these students? The focusing questions provide a lens through which we may judge the advantages and drawbacks of the Wisconsin approach. Educators and policy makers may also wish to consider the applicability of Wisconsin's approach to their own unique state and local contexts.

The key component of Wisconsin's approach is the state's framework for classroom-based, alternate assessment for students at the first three (beginner through intermediate) of five English proficiency levels. This alternate framework is coupled to a relatively liberal policy towards testing accommodations (when students reach the higher English proficiency levels four and five and are deemed ready to participate in the large-scale, criterion-referenced content assessments given at grades four, eight, and ten). Together the alternate assessment framework and testing accommodations policy form a continuum of academic assessment options that provide accountability for LEP students working toward full English proficiency and academic parity with grade level peers.

I first describe the Wisconsin approach, including the process undertaken thus far to create and implement the alternate assessment framework, and what remains to be done for full implementation. I then consider the advantages and drawbacks of the Wisconsin approach and offer suggestions for Wisconsin and other states as they move forward with their large-scale assessment policies for LEP students.

THE WISCONSIN APPROACH

In 1997, the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction (DPI) created an interdivisional workgroup to make policy recommendations regarding the equitable inclusion of students with disabilities or limited English proficiency in statewide assessment. The impetus for the workgroup was federal legislation[3] requiring that both groups of students be fully included in states' academic accountability systems by July 2000. The workgroup began this task by examining the literature on best practices for these students and by gathering data from other states regarding plans and initiatives for complying with the legislation.

In particular, the workgroup looked at Maryland and Kentucky because they were recognized as leaders in this area, and Illinois, Ohio, Indiana and Minnesota because they are Midwest states and participate within the same federally funded technical assistance center, known as the Great Lakes Area Regional Resource Center.

While clearly understanding the importance of current research and recent efforts, the workgroup also knew that any solutions it proposed would need to take into account Wisconsin's tradition of local control,

and fit within the state's current standards and accountability framework. Wisconsin has adopted core academic standards in English language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies. These standards are assessed at grades four, eight and ten using the Wisconsin Knowledge and Concepts Exam (WKCE), a criterion-referenced, standardized assessment contracted through CTB-McGraw Hill, a leading company in the production of norm and criterion-referenced, standardized academic assessments. The Department of Public Instruction also co-produces the Wisconsin Reading Comprehension Test (WRCT), administered annually at grade three. The WKCE and WRCT together form what is referred to as the Wisconsin Student Assessment System (WSAS).

Students can score within four designated proficiency categories on these assessments: minimal, basic, proficient or advanced. The state considers "proficient" to be the acceptable minimum for all Wisconsin students and the ultimate aim of the accountability system is to create incentives for local schools to educate all students within the same standards framework, and thus greatly increase the percentages of students scoring in the proficient and advanced categories. At the same time, schools must also minimize the number of students exempted from WSAS. [4]

Against this backdrop, the workgroup needed to recommend a policy for alternate assessment and accommodations that would include all students with disabilities and limited English proficiency. While the workgroup was charged with creating policy for both groups of students, the focus of this article is primarily on the policy recommendations and subsequent alternate assessment framework created for LEP students.[5] Before presenting the workgroup's recommendations, readers need one additional contextual detail with regard to LEP student policy in Wisconsin. This is found within the state's administrative rules (PI 13 & 16). The rules identify five levels of limited English proficiency, prohibiting the use of standardized assessment of students at the beginning through lower intermediate levels (levels 1-3). States vary greatly regarding when they allow LEP student participation in standardized, large-scale assessments, with some states permitting participation after only one year of instruction in English. Under the current administrative rule, this could not be considered in Wisconsin.

Given the current rule, which not only exempts LEP students at levels 1-3 but also provides no time restriction on reaching proficiency level 4, the workgroup determined that a standards-based, alternate assessment framework was as important for LEP students as for students with disabilities. Members of the workgroup were also committed to the concept that any alternate assessment framework created should be fully aligned with the same academic standards that all other students needed to master.

ALTERNATE PERFORMANCE INDICATORS (APIS): THE PROCESS AND THE PRODUCT

New York was not one of the states the workgroup originally targeted as a model. Their development of "alternate performance indicators" for use with students with severe disabilities, however, offered both a mechanism for alignment with academic standards and the potential for local control of the alternate assessment process. Standards-based alternate performance indicators had not been developed for LEP students either in New York or elsewhere, but the idea seemed to have merit.

The workgroup sought approval from the Department of Public Instruction to bring approximately 60 Wisconsin educators and parents to Madison for four days in June 1998 to draft alternate performance indicators. Bilingual, English as a second language, and regular content area educators who work with LEP students formed the taskforce. Subgroups of these same educators were formed in each of the four core academic areas. After receiving one and a half days of training, each group began drafting 1-3 alternate performance indicators for each performance standard and 1-2 sample performance activities per API (see Table 1).

The workgroup members were asked to consider what indicators of performance their students at English proficiency levels 1-3 (beginning through intermediate) could reasonably be expected to demonstrate related to particular performance standards. The workgroup then considered a corresponding classroom assessment task or activity that could provide teachers an authentic assessment context within which to measure the APIs. The workgroup developed a chart in four columns under each content standard. The left hand column listed the corresponding performance standards, followed by a column for the draft alternate performance indicators. This was followed by a column for sample draft activities/tasks and, finally, a column to be left blank, providing teachers space to document their sources of assessment data, e.g., work samples, direct observation, review of records, or tests (API Taskforce, 2000).

The subgroups drafted alternate performance indicators for educators of LEP students at each of three benchmark levels included in the Wisconsin Model Academic Standards (grades four, eight, and twelve). Later in the summer, a review and editing process began which continued until March 1999 when the APIs were sent for the first printing authorized for dissemination to Wisconsin educators (still as a draft document). A final edition on CD-ROM was scheduled for release by summer 2000.

TABLE 1
Science Connection

Content Standard: Students in Wisconsin will understand that among the science disciplines there are unifying themes: systems, order, organization, and interactions; evidence, models, and explanations; constancy, change, and measurement; evolution, equilibrium, and energy; form and function. ***Rationale:*** These unifying themes are ways of thinking rather than theories or discoveries. Students should know about these themes and realize that the more they learn about science the better they will understand how the themes organize and enlarge their knowledge. Science is a system and should be seen as a single discipline rather than a set of separate disciplines. Students will also understand science better when they connect and integrate these unifying themes into what they know about themselves and the world around them.			
Performance Standards: By the end of grade four students will:	***Sample Alternate Performance Indicators:*** **(1-3 per standard)**	***Sample Performance Activities/Tasks:*** **(1-2 per indicator)**	***Sources of Data***
A.4.1. When conducting science investigations, ask and answer questions that will help decide the general areas of science being addressed	1. Identify the three domains of science (earth/space, life/ environmental, and physical) 2. Identify a question that can be answered through a science investigation 3. Identify the general area(s) of science being addressed in a question	1.a. Sort items into appropriate science domains 1.b. Make a collage for each science domain 1.c. Complete three separate investigations and/or experiments and identify the domain each experiment represents 2.a. Using graphics and/or visuals, convey a question that can be answered in a scientific manner 2.b. Choose a question that can be investigated scientifically from a list of questions, some of which need science investigation 3.a. In cooperative groups, generate a question and design an experiment. Identify the science domain of this question and experiment 3.b. Ask and answer questions relating to which science domain(s) an experiment and/or investigation represents	
A.4.2. When faced with a science-related problem, decide what evidence, models, or explanations previously studied can be used to better understand what is happening now	1. Identify background knowledge related to a problem	1.a. Use graphic organizers such as KWHL charts K = what you know W = what you want to know H = how will you find out L = what you learned 1.b. Create a word web or semantic map 1.c. In a small group, generate a problem and specify the necessary steps to solve the problem	

THE GUIDE AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT INITIATIVE

The workgroup supported the notion that the alternate performance indicators would be of little value if they were not accompanied by a guide to assist educators in using them and a professional development initiative to familiarize educators with the concepts of standards-based instruction and assessment. Therefore, one of the authors of Illinois' alternate assessments, Dr. Margo Gottlieb, was contracted to write *Standards-Based Alternate Assessment for Limited-English Proficient Students: A Guide for Wisconsin Educators* (Gottlieb, 2000). The guide demonstrates how to design and use APIs and alternate performance tasks. It also assists educators in creating rubrics, interpreting data, measuring gains over time and reporting results at the local level.

Results of performance on alternate assessment at the state level are reported in a fifth academic proficiency category called "pre-requisite English." This category is used until LEP students take tests from the Wisconsin Student Assessment System (WSAS) where they may score in the four previously discussed categories of minimal, basic, proficient or advanced.

Professional development opportunities for using the guide and APIs began in spring 1999, and will likely continue for the next 2-3 years until a large number of educators are comfortable with the process of conducting standards-based, alternate assessments within their classrooms. As of April 2000, over 400 teachers had participated in the initial workshop series.

WISCONSIN'S TESTING ACCOMMODATIONS POLICY

By administrative rule, only alternate assessments can be given to LEP students through English proficiency level three (intermediate) on the five-point scale previously mentioned. Therefore, testing accommodations, when given, are for English proficiency levels four and five (advanced intermediate through advanced). Beyond this definition of eligibility, Wisconsin's tradition of local control has led to a comparatively open-ended policy towards accommodations with LEP students. This policy leaves most decisions regarding specific accommodations largely in the hands of local educators, simply advising them that the accommodations they use "must not invalidate the assessment." The Department of Public Instruction has published *Guidelines to Facilitate the Participation*

of Students with Special Needs in State Assessments [6] which provide further examples of accommodation "do's" and "don'ts." For example, orally reading the language arts or reading sections of the WSAS is prohibited because it changes the construct being tested. Such an open-ended policy may promote greater and earlier inclusion of LEP students in large-scale assessment, but it is not without problems. We have virtually no documentation at the state level on which accommodations are being used where, with whom and with what results.

THE ADVANTAGES AND DRAWBACKS TO THE WISCONSIN APPROACH

As the only state to have developed alternate performance indicators for use with limited-English proficient students to date, it is important to consider what merits and deficiencies Wisconsin's approach to alternate assessment of LEP students may hold. Beginning with the potential advantages, use of the APIs may promote greater alignment between standards-based curriculum, instruction and assessment for a group of students who have often been denied access to quality academic content, particularly in the beginning stages of English language proficiency development. In this sense, the APIs serve as much as a curriculum and instructional planning guide as they do for guiding assessment.

Alternate performance indicators promote multiple ways of assessing LEP student performance that are authentic and take place over time. This is congruent with the best practice recommendations for LEP student assessment (LaCelle-Peterson & Rivera, 1994). Content validity is high with alternate performance indicators as they are directly linked to the same academic standards other students are learning. Unlike many standardized assessments, no high stakes (e.g., student retention, graduation) are attached to performance on APIs, so issues of negative consequences for students are less a concern (Messick, 1994). Thus, by using alternate performance indicators to demonstrate academic progress until students have greater English proficiency, schools may avoid some of the disadvantages of giving standardized assessments too soon.

For the first time, teachers and schools have a systematic way to measure at the classroom level the academic performance and growth of LEP students at beginning and intermediate English proficiency levels. Teachers now have a framework within which to discuss academic progress with LEP students, their families and their local communities. This was only possible before with a few larger school districts that were able to assess students for academic content knowledge in students' native languages (typically Spanish speakers only). In lieu of academic assessments,

most schools settle for English language assessment results as the sole indicator of LEP student progress. The problem with these assessments is that typically measured gains in English proficiency correlate poorly with eventual academic performance (LaCelle-Peterson & Rivera, 1994). Language assessments also provide teachers with insufficient guidance for planning content instruction.

While LEP students were formerly excluded from the accountability system (listed simply as "Not Tested" on state reports of large-scale assessment results) they are now listed as participating in alternate assessment and are assigned a proficiency-based category which relates to the other four categories used for the majority of students.

This approach of assigning LEP students to a category called "Pre-Requisite English" in state level reports may seem puzzling to some. Certainly this category does not tell the state or local community how much math or science an LEP student may know. Appropriate use of the APIs will provide that information where it is most needed, however, at the individual classroom, student and family levels. The category of "Pre-Requisite English" provides a mechanism for including LEP students in state level reports that sends a clear, albeit incomplete, message that these students are working on the pre-requisite English skills necessary to demonstrate progress in the other state level reporting categories of minimal, basic, proficient, and advanced.

Surely less than ideal, "Pre-Requisite English" is still an improvement over the nebulous category "Not Tested" in the days when LEP students were completely absent from state level reports. Performance reports now include the percentage of students scoring proficient or advanced within each school, based both on total building enrollment and number of students eligible to be tested in English on the standardized measures. This provides schools with an incentive to move students towards English language and academic proficiency where none existed before.

Despite these very definite merits, the Wisconsin approach to academic assessment for LEP students is not without drawbacks. Performance on APIs cannot be equated directly with the four standard proficiency categories students achieve in taking the large-scale assessments. Because they are classroom-based and ongoing, issues of inter-rater reliability may exist between teachers even within the same school, to say nothing of the difficulties of attempting meaningful comparisons from district to district or at the state level.

Because Wisconsin has not set time limits for students to reach English proficiency benchmarks, it is still possible that some schools may allow LEP students to stay in the alternate category too long. This is not a new problem since some students languished in the "Not Tested" cat-

egory indefinitely prior to the new alternate assessment framework. It should be less of a problem with total building reporting now required. Nonetheless, many may consider the current incentive system inadequate, especially for districts or schools with a relatively small LEP student enrollment.

Full and effective implementation of the APIs in Wisconsin will require an extensive professional development effort. This is a drawback in the sense that we are, in 2000, a long way from that goal. It could also be considered as a merit, however, since successful implementation requires the kind of concerted professional development that will undoubtedly improve the quality of LEP student support programs by elevating academic standards and promoting linkages with the mainstream.

Finally, an effective plan to field test the use of the alternate assessment framework needs to be developed and implemented. Without field testing, we will not know the degree to which these alternate assessments predict eventual success on the standardized assessments students must take later. Wisconsin should also have a plan to measure the degree of implementation of the alternate assessment framework across the state.

DISCUSSION

I began with some questions to direct our thoughts on assessment for LEP students. The first two of these involved defining what "included in the accountability system" means, and where on a continuum of state and local accountability LEP students should be placed. These are difficult questions to answer because LEP students come to our schools with many differing profiles. Some arrive with no English proficiency, some with little or no prior schooling, some without literacy skills in their native language, and others with a host of issues associated with poverty or refugee experiences.

What is needed is a continuum of assessment options that fits both the English proficiency and academic proficiency needs of this wide range of students. Content area native language assessments that are standardized and comparable to the state's large-scale assessments might be desirable for some LEP students, but are not practical for a state like Wisconsin with low total numbers of LEP students speaking multiple languages and dialects. Mandating that all LEP students take the standardized assessment after one or two years is of questionable value and validity, particularly as states like Wisconsin contemplate adding high stakes consequences to those same assessments.

Testing accommodations for LEP students represent an important transitional step between alternate classroom assessments and full participation in standardized testing. As such, accommodations should be

encouraged to the extent that they do not significantly affect the reliability and validity of standardized measures. Certainly this is an area where more research is needed, but in the interest of promoting full assessment inclusion in equitable ways, states like Wisconsin should not curtail particular accommodations without justifiable cause.

While Wisconsin, like other states, is hesitant to mandate additional procedures or controls at the local level, schools should be strongly encouraged to make full use of the local reporting possibilities provided in the alternate assessment framework. Only through thorough, ongoing assessment and documentation of LEP student academic progress will schools truly be accountable for *all* LEP student performance. State supported programs that currently provide the Department of Public Instruction with English proficiency data documenting student growth may reasonably be asked to provide data that also document academic gains.

We do well to remember that there are tradeoffs inherent in any accountability system. While excluding LEP students too often left them out of the reform equation, full inclusion in standardized testing too soon may encourage schools to look only for short term English language gains rather than longer term academic success. August and Hakuta (1997) remind us that, for wise decision making, schools and policy makers must first be aware of the complex nature of linguistic, cultural and academic background issues that LEP students bring to the learning table. Otherwise, support programs for LEP students will tend to be simplistic, short term and inadequate for ensuring genuine, long-term academic success.

CONCLUSIONS

Teachers of limited-English proficient students in the State of Wisconsin have an opportunity to make use of the new alternate assessment framework to enhance the teaching of language through content, with the knowledge that the content they are teaching is based on the same high standards all students must achieve. The assessment framework should also provide teachers with ongoing feedback regarding the academic progress of their students. Quality academic feedback, in particular, has been difficult to acquire for students from the beginner to intermediate levels of English proficiency.

Other states may wish to consider the development and implementation of a standards-based, alternate assessment framework for LEP students, as part of a broad continuum of academic assessment options. While full and early inclusion in large-scale testing has been recommended by many, these standardized assessments increasingly come with high stakes attached that often do not adequately consider the full array of language development and opportunity-to-learn issues LEP students face. Also,

the verdict on the effectiveness of testing accommodations for LEP students is still out (Butler & Stevens, 1997).

Teachers within academic support programs have traditionally experienced difficulty in moving beyond separate, remedial curricula. Alternate performance indicators offer teachers of LEP students a local framework within which they are encouraged to align their curriculum, instruction and assessment with challenging content and performance standards from the very beginning. This should enable support programs to accelerate the rate at which LEP students close the academic gap while acquiring the English skills necessary to make an effective transition into large-scale assessment systems that serve the wider school population.

NOTES

[1] While the term English Language Learner (ELL) is no doubt preferable to Limited English Proficient (LEP), LEP is still the legally recognized term for these students in both federal legislation and State of Wisconsin Statutes and Administrative Codes.

[2] While special educators estimate that between 10-20% of all students with disabilities will take alternate assessments, no similar national level estimates exist for LEP students, as states differ widely regarding how long students are allowed exemptions from standardized tests and what, if any, alternate assessments are required in the interim.

[3] The requirement for full inclusion of students with disabilities is based on the Individuals with Disabilities Educational Act (IDEA) as amended in 1997; the requirement for LEP students is based on the Improving America's Schools Act (IASA) of 1994.

[4] Office for Educational Accountability, Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction informational bulletins on WSAS are available at the DPI website <http://www.dpi.state.wi.us>.

[5] References to the DPI alternate assessment workgroup deliberations come from the groups' meeting minutes, 1997-99.

[6] This document is available at <http://www.dpi.state.wi.us/dpi/oea/specneed.html>.

THE AUTHOR

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More Than the Usual Heterogeneity in the ESL Writing Class

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This paper is the result of a quantitative study comparing the writing of foreign students with that of Southeast Asian permanent residents who have graduated from American high schools. This research tests the hypothesis that foreign students entering university ESL programs have a better grasp of certain formal characteristics of written English than do Southeast Asian permanent residents entering the same programs. The participants in both groups are drawn from a single, university-level ESL program. The two groups are compared for their construction of complex verb groups, familiarity with punctuation conventions, and use of syntactic devices associated with written English. A second test assesses knowledge of the parts of speech. The results of the study show that foreign students make fewer grammatical errors and are more familiar with the conventions and syntactic structures of written English than the Southeast Asian permanent residents. The foreign students also have more conscious knowledge of grammar. Possible reasons for these results are discussed, as well as classroom strategies for improving the writing of Southeast Asian permanent residents.

Universities have typically categorized their not-ready-for-English-101 students into two types: the "basic writers," native speakers who lack fluency in standard, written English and are what Shaughnessy refers to as "strangers in academia" (1977, p. 2); and the "ESL writers," non-native speakers of English who also lack fluency in standard written English, but are not necessarily, or even likely, to be strangers to the classroom. Though basic writers often come from marginalized communities whose members "have never reconciled the worlds of home and school" (Shaughnessy, 1977, p. 3), ESL writers, if they are foreign students, often "come from wealthy families" and as such "have profited from the privileges of wealth" (Leki, 1992, p. 61). Since access to education is one of these privileges, it is safe to say that many foreign students remediating their English in ESL writing courses at American universities come to us having already met some success in the classrooms of their home countries. They may lack English language skills, but their presence in the

university ESL classroom is a good indicator that they have mastered the rules, regulations, and procedures of the educational system from which they come. Thus, while many American basic writers can be described as being academically unprepared for college study, the same cannot be said for most foreign students; the latter may need to make a few specific adjustments to the academic culture of North America, but otherwise, they are ready to do school.

It is certainly appropriate and necessary then, when numbers are sufficient and the university has the where-with-all, that American basic writers and ESL writers matriculate into separate programs. The complication, however, arises when a third group of not-ready-for-English 101 students, Southeast Asian permanent residents, arrives on campus. Often, these writers are placed into ESL classes with foreign students. After all, English is a second language for these students and in a broad, geographical sense of the word "culture," there is a connection between, say, the Chinese and Indonesian foreign students who populate many university ESL programs and the Hmong, Lao, and Vietnamese Southeast Asians who are permanent residents of the United States. But race and geographic origin are not all. It is one thing for a member of a secure social class to matriculate through twelve or so years of the best education her country has to offer before going overseas to finish off a relatively consistent and solid formal education, and another to have little or no formal education in the mother tongue before fleeing persecution by one's own government and finding oneself stranded, along with parents and siblings, in an alien world only partially understood. The latter student is likely to feel very much a "stranger" in the classroom and be unable to "reconcile" the worlds of home and classroom. Thus, some Southeast Asian resident aliens, though technically ESL writers, are, in terms of their lacking acculturation to the formal classroom, much like American basic writers.[1]

Given these differences in the backgrounds of foreign ESL students and some permanent residents, one would expect to find differences in both learning styles and writing. The former has been researched: Bliatout, Downing, Lewis, & Yang (1988), Hvidtfeldt (1986), Dufresne (1992) and Duffy (1992) describe in detail the learning styles of Hmong refugees and at least implicitly make comparisons with the learning styles of students who have grown up with the formal classroom. But little has been done to compare the writing of foreign ESL students and permanent resident ESL students. One exception is Tarone et al. (1993). Using a holistic evaluation method that considered accuracy, fluency, organization, and coherence, the researchers compared groups of SEA writers ranging from elementary school through the university level to university level foreign students. Although their results showed little difference between the

writing of SEA permanent resident writers enrolled in the university and that of university foreign students, it is striking that "the university international student group, made up of recent arrivals in the U.S., achieved about the same level of writing skill as the SE Asian refugee group which consisted of students who had been in the U.S. much longer and had been in U.S. public schools" (p. 160-61). Moreover, when the researchers compared groups of SEA resident writers from elementary to university levels, they found "little change in the writing scores of the mainstreamed SE Asian writers, as [they] look[ed] across the 8th grade through the beginning college groups" (p. 162). It appears, then, that foreign students reach a high, but pre-college level of writing proficiency during a relatively short sojourn in ESL writing programs, while SEA residents achieve a similar level before high school, but then stagnate.

Though Tarone et al.'s holistic analysis did not reveal significant differences between foreign ESL writers in the university and SEA resident writers, the vastly different learning curves that characterize their acquisition of written English lead us to suspect that foreign ESL writers and permanent resident ESL students have different needs as writers. And if that is true, we can expect these needs to be revealed in a comparison of their respective writing. By noting what distinguishes the writing of permanent residents from that of foreign students, we can become more aware of what skills and deficiencies SEA permanent residents bring with them to the act of writing. Certainly, important differences could be looked for in terms of paragraph development, essay structure, and coherence, but equally important differences are those of mechanics and syntax. After all, if adherence to the conventions of the written language (mechanics) and accurate production of the sentence structures common to written academic registers are indicative of a writer's familiarity with the reading and writing of academic texts, then differences in these regards likely reveal differences in academic preparation and a consequent direction for remediation.

Hence, as a starting point for characterizing the needs of SEA permanent resident writers, we must distinguish their papers from those of foreign students by looking at the following questions: Are the specific grammatical errors made by one group different from those of the other? Are there grammatical patterns found in one group that are not found in the other? Are there differences in the explicit grammar knowledge of the two groups that would account for their differing abilities to self-edit as they write? Finding out just where the differences lie is of utmost importance if writing pedagogy appropriate to the particular needs of SEA residents is to be developed.

THE STUDY

An effort to gather specific information on the differences between foreign student and permanent resident ESL writers was made at a small Midwestern state university over fall semester of 1995. We first compared the freshman writing placement tests of SEA permanent residents with those of foreign students matriculating to the university. The comparison focused on sentence-level grammatical and lexical features that were indicative of grammatical accuracy and familiarity with written academic English. The second part of the investigation consisted of a questionnaire that tested elementary knowledge of the parts of speech.[2]

The 22 participants in the foreign student group were chosen to be representative of the type of intermediate to high English language proficiency, undergraduate level foreign students typically found in university ESL programs in the Midwest. Their ages ranged from 19 to 28, though most were in their early 20s. They came from five different language backgrounds: Indonesian, Japanese, Spanish, Chinese, and Korean. The inclusion of their particular placement test essay in the study was determined on the basis of their failure to place into Freshman English 101 and consequent mandate to an ESL writing course. The essays were then handed over to the ESL program where they were read again by at least two of the ESL faculty, who placed the essays into one of three levels of proficiency. The essays included in this study were taken only from the higher two groups. Thus, this subject group did not include foreign students whose writing skills had been judged adequate for university study, nor those whose writing skills placed them at the beginning level of the ESL program. The group was thus composed of intermediate and high level ESL writers with a mean TOEFL score of 508.

The SEA resident group was intended to be representative of Southeast Asian refugees who have had only a few years of primary and/or secondary education in the US and are attempting to matriculate to a US university. The 14 Hmong and two Vietnamese who comprise this subject group were in fact all of the SEA residents mandated to attend the ESL program during the year this study was conducted and the previous year. Their ages ranged from 18 to the late 20s. Again, their essays were included in the study due to their failure to gain placement into freshman English. Thus, like the foreign student group, the SEA resident group did not include SEA permanent residents whose writing samples placed them directly into freshman English. All 16 placed into either the high or intermediate level of the ESL writing program and, like the foreign student groups, could be described as intermediate to high-level ESL writers. Since residents are not required to submit TOEFL scores to the university, no scores could be obtained for this group.

In addition to matching the two groups in age and English language writing ability, information regarding educational background was gathered on all participants. First of all, all 16 students in the SEA group had graduated from an American high school, and six of the 16 had attended an American junior high, indicating that most had come to the U.S. in their early teens. The mean number of years spent in the U.S. at the time of their participation in the study was 6.72. The mean number of years of prior American schooling was 4.81.

As for the 22 foreign student participants, all were graduates of secondary institutions in their countries of origin and none had had any experience in the American secondary education system. The mean number of years they had studied English before coming to the U.S. was 5.6. Most had begun to study English in their country of origin as a two or three-hour-per-week subject at the age of 12 or 13, though some did not begin until somewhat later. Only two had been in the U.S. for as much as six months while none of the other 20 had been in the U.S. any more than three weeks.

PART ONE

The first part of this investigation will address two questions. The first is stated below:

1. Are there differences between the two groups in their rates of error for English verb morphology?

The reasons for choosing verb morphology are at least two. To begin with, tense and subject-verb agreement are inflectional features of English that are either not realized grammatically in the first languages of the subjects in this study (excluding Spanish) or if they are realized grammatically, they are realized in a manner different from English.[3] Hence, mastery of English verb morphology could not be approximated by any transfer from the first language, but could only be accomplished with an understanding of English verbal inflection. Secondly, in English it is mandatory to formally indicate tense and agreement in every finite clause, and there is not much ambiguity in the marking. The presence or absence of these grammatical features in subjects' writing is therefore easy to see and quantify.

The second question that will be addressed in Part One is as follows:

2. Are grammatical constructions common to written English used with greater frequency by one group than the other?

At the basis of this question is the suspicion that the kind of English learned by SEA residents is not the same kind of English that is learned by foreign students. As explained by Spolsky (1989), the environment in which one learns the second language determines what variety or even dialect the learner acquires. The environment in which most foreign students begin to learn English in their own countries is by necessity an English of books. There is little or no exposure to conversational, familiar, or informal varieties of English. Consequently, many foreign students come to U.S. universities commanding an English that, though imperfect and not yet fluent, is of a variety that is conducive to what Adamson calls "academic competence" (1992). SEA residents, on the other hand, may be more fluent than foreign students, but not necessarily in the variety of English that is expected in the university classroom. If this is so, we should expect that a comparison of foreign student and SEA resident writing will show that accurate and consistent use of the lexicon and grammatical structures common to written English is more prevalent among the foreign students than the SEA residents.

Procedures

The data for Part One of this investigation were taken from the writing test assessment files of the ESL program at the university between 1993 and 1995. The tests, given every semester to matriculating students, consist of an explanatory statement introducing the topic, followed by three alternative thesis statements. Writers are asked to choose one of the theses and support it; in effect, they write an argumentative essay. Though the topics are different each semester, the format is always the same and writers are always given 60 minutes to complete their response. The essays included in this study were on one of the following topics: pets, cheating in school, grouping students by ability, the effectiveness of competency exams, vegetarianism, the value of TV watching, gun control, or sex education. (For an example of a test prompt see Appendix A.) Though it is maintained that topic choice has an effect on writing performance and perhaps linguistic structures utilized (Hoether & Brossell, 1989, Huot, 1990), it is assumed in this study that the effect will be largely neutralized as each of the eight topics were written on in roughly similar proportions by both groups, and in all cases, the writing mode was the same: argumentative essay.

The writing assessment essays were examined for six different features. The first three features, subject-verb agreement, tense, and main verb morphology pertained to question one and were gathered by conducting an error analysis of the finite clauses of each composition. In regard to agreement, the evaluator looked for the presence or absence of

third person, singular '-s' or the correct form of 'be' when used as a main verb or first auxiliary element. For tense, the evaluator first established the time frame of the text and then examined the first element in the verb group for the appropriate tense form. Main verb morphology was checked for all complex verb groups, the appropriate form being one of three: infinitive, present participle, or past participle. Misspellings and regularization of irregular verb forms did not count as errors.

The last three features, meant to address question two, consisted of both a frequency count and an error analysis. The frequency count looked for the presence of relative clauses and logical connectors, two grammatical devices believed to be much more common in written styles of English than in spoken (Chafe, 1982; Clancy, 1982; O'Donnell, 1974). The logical connectors included in the frequency count were only those associated with more formal styles of written English. Therefore, connectors that signal contrast, concession, and result, such as *even though*, *however*, and *therefore*, were included in the count, while connectors associated with spoken styles of English such as compound conjunctions (*and*, *but*), time adverbials (*when*, *after*), and *because* and *if* were excluded.[4] The error analysis regarded placement of periods. Since punctuation is a convention of written language exclusively, perhaps degrees of familiarity with written language would correspond to accuracy with placement of periods. Faulty use or absence of a period resulting in a sentence fragment or run-on sentence was counted as an error.

Whenever one of the six features or errors was found, it was noted in the margin. After the essay was gone over twice, the total number of features or errors were entered on a tally sheet. From the two tally sheets, one for each group of subjects, totals were collected for each of the seven features. However, since the mean number of words per composition was not the same for the two groups (foreign students = 307, SEA residents = 244), totals for each subject and each feature had to be converted to a rate per 100 words before means could be calculated and compared.

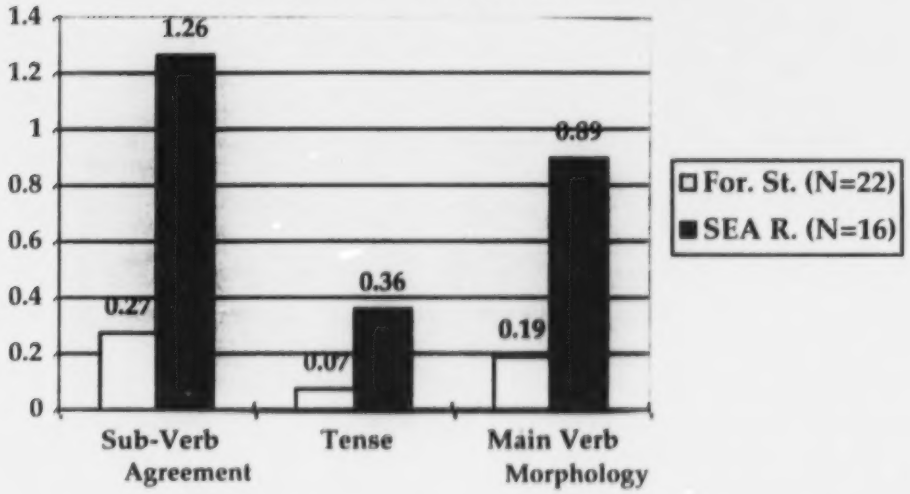
Results

Figure 1 shows the mean number of errors per 100 words of text for verb group errors.

In regard to question one, Figure 1 reveals that the SEA subjects of the study made more verb morphology errors than the foreign subjects did. Column one, for example shows that the foreign students made only .27 agreement errors per one hundred words of text while the SEA residents made 1.26. This means that SEA residents made five times as many agreement errors in their compositions as foreign students did. A similar ratio of intra-group errors obtains for verb tense. Though both groups had low rates of tense errors in comparison to agreement errors, column

FIGURE 1

Verb Group Error Means, Foreign Student & SEA Permanent Residents Per 100 Words



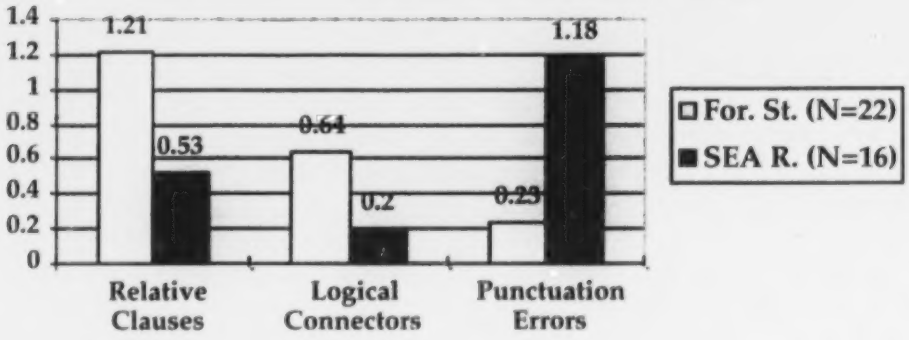
two shows the SEA residents again made errors at five times the rate of foreign students. In regard to main verb morphology, column three shows that the SEA residents were less accurate in using infinitives, past participles, and present participles. The SEA resident rate of .89 errors per one hundred words was four times higher than the foreign student rate of .19. Finally, though the SEA residents made more errors than the foreign students in all three areas of verb inflection and morphology, the relative rates of error within each group were the same: both groups of high-intermediate writers made the most errors in subject-verb agreement and the least in tense.

Figure 2 shows the mean frequency of relative clause and logical connector use as well as punctuation errors per 100 words.

Column one of Figure 2 shows that the foreign students in the study constructed 1.21 relative clauses per 100 words and the SEA residents .53. Thus, foreign students constructed relative clauses at twice the rate SEA residents did. Column two also shows foreign students used more of the target grammatical devices than the SEA residents did. The foreign student rate of .64 logical connectors per 100 words was three times that of the SEA resident rate of .20. Column three shows the largest difference of the three. While foreign students misplaced periods only .23 times per 100 words, SEA residents did so at a rate of 1.18 times per 100 words. The SEA resident rate for writing sentence fragments and run-on sentences was five times that of the foreign students.

FIGURE 2

Clause Construction and Punctuation Error Means Per 100 Words: Foreign Student & SEA Residents



PART TWO

The second part of the study attempts to answer a single question:

3. Does one group have greater knowledge of the parts of speech than the other does?

ESL instructors who have had both foreign and permanent residents in the same class report that many SEA resident writers are slow to remediate habitual grammar errors and, unlike most foreign students, are not able to participate in discussions of grammar generally (Brendel, Dyken, Klawikowski, & Tarver, 1995). A possible explanation for this may well be found in differences in the conscious grammatical knowledge of these two groups of writers.

Procedures

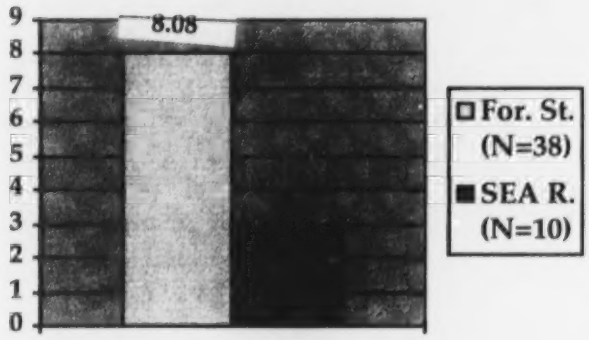
To investigate knowledge of the parts of speech, participants were given ten sentences in which one word was underlined. They were instructed to identify the underlined word as a "noun, verb, adjective, adverb, conjunction," or "preposition." (See Appendix B.) The total number correct were determined for each subject and means were established for both groups. Many of the students who participated in Part One of the study were not available when the data for Part Two was gathered in September of 1995; hence, the participants in this second part of the investigation were not exactly the same as in the first. The foreign student group consisted of the 38 foreign students whose English writing proficiency ranged from low to high. Essentially, this group was composed of all students enrolled in a writing class of the ESL program that semester

whose profiles were comparable to the foreign students in Part One of this study in terms of their age, number of years of English study before coming the US, and length of time in country. Only a handful of these foreign students were from the study in Part One. The 10 SEA residents were a sub-group of the SEA resident subjects in part one. The other six were not available for testing.

Results

Figure 3 shows the mean number of correct answers for each group for the 10 sentences:

FIGURE 3
Mean Score out of 10 on Test of the Parts of Speech



The foreign students in the study were better at identifying parts of speech than the SEA residents were. The foreign student mean of 8.08 is more than twice as high as the SEA resident mean of 3. This is so, even though the foreign student group included subjects whose limited English proficiency had placed them into the lowest level of the university's ESL program.

DISCUSSION

Two observations can be made from the above results. The first is that the SEA resident student writers in the study appear to have a weaker grasp of English grammar than foreign student writers do. In terms of production, Figure 1 suggests that SEA permanent residents are less able to consistently establish agreement between subject and verb, indicate tense, and use the correct form of the main verb in complex verb groups than foreign students are. Likewise, in terms of comprehension, SEA per-

manent residents also appear to command less explicit grammatical knowledge than foreign students do. The relatively low score of SEA residents compared to foreign students shown in Figure 3 shows them less able to identify the major parts of speech of English.

The second observation is that the foreign students appear to be more familiar with the sentence structures and conventions of written, academic English than SEA residents are. In Figure 2, we see that SEA permanent residents used fewer relative clauses and logical connectors than foreign students did and were less accurate with their placement of periods.[5]

To explain the above results, we might discuss the different ways that each group learned English as a second language as well as the differences in their educational backgrounds. Given that the foreign students in the study had studied English an average of 5.6 years in their home countries and none had spent more than six months in the U.S. (most had spent only a few weeks), there is reason to believe they learned English much the same way American students in the U.S. learn a foreign language: as an academic subject in a part of the world where daily communication in the language of study is non-existent or very limited. In fact, in many countries, such as Korea, Japan, China, Taiwan, and Indonesia, the countries from which almost all the subjects in the foreign student group come, English is a required subject and knowledge of the grammar and vocabulary of the standard, written language are included in national exams that determine who may matriculate to the next highest level of education. Thus, foreign students' knowledge of English is in some respects like their knowledge of math, chemistry, or civics: they know the fundamental working principles of the subject matter and have a command of the basic terminology. This accounts for foreign students' knowledge of the parts of speech and perhaps also in part for their understanding and relatively consistent use of English inflectional morphology when writing. In addition, since their exposure to English is in the context of school, it is often formal, academic, and written registers that they become familiar with, the types of English in which one encounters relative clauses, logical connectors, and the conventions of punctuation.

But perhaps more important than foreign student exposure to academic English is the fact that foreign students have manipulated and mastered, at least to some degree, the academic style in their first language. They have read, written about, and been tested on school content, such as history, science, and current events in their native language and have thus acquired some facility in school ways of writing and thinking. Though their formal education and particular notion of literacy may be somewhat different from that practiced in the American university (see Carson, 1992), they nonetheless implicitly recognize topics and ways of discussing them that are appropriate to the classroom. They come to the

U.S. already familiar with the rhetorical communities of their own countries (Purves, 1986). This foundation in the literate culture of their first language equips them to validate and attend to the university ESL writing classroom demands for grammatical accuracy, specialized vocabulary, and complex conventions of punctuation.

For SEA residents such as those in our study, who come to the U.S. in their early teenage years knowing little if any English, the second language is not primarily an academic subject. First of all, they have an immediate need to communicate and so begin to acquire English in bits and pieces the moment they arrive in the country, whether they are enrolled in school or not. This explains why the mean number of years in the U.S. for our SEA subjects (6.72) is much greater than their years of U.S. schooling (4.81). They begin acquiring English in face-to-face encounters with neighbors, social service providers, landlords, and employers and develop an inter-personal, context-dependent fluency in English. Though this face-to-face acquisition is not all that different from the way monolingual American children learn English and the style acquired is suitable for day-to-day living, it is not sufficient for the classroom. Studies such as Poole (1976), Heath (1983), Wells (1986), and Snow, Barnes, Chandler, Hemphill, & Goodman (1991) that have looked at monolingual English speakers from a variety of socio-economic backgrounds have demonstrated this fact. They point out that unless the child is exposed to context-independent language in the home or in the first years of formal education, she may never become adept at performing school language tasks. Unfortunately, SEA residents like the ones in our study are unlikely to develop this style of language either at home or at school.

The home is not necessarily a place for such language to be learned because often SEA parents, especially Hmong, are not literate in either their first language or English (Bliatout et al., 1988) and are thus unable to provide a model. Though good ESL teachers may be able to compensate for the home language situation of many SEA resident children, it must be remembered that one of the crucial characteristics of the SEA residents in this study is that few had the benefit of either American elementary school or junior high school. Thus, the high school ESL teachers of these students had to teach not only language skills, but also the basic cultural and content area background knowledge believed to be to be requisite to the development of academic literacy (Cummins, 1991; Laufer and Sim, 1985). Obviously, three or four years are not enough to do all of this. If we assume that the account of Dufresne (1992), who studied SEA residents in Minneapolis high schools, also describes the experiences of the SEA residents in our study, one of two things happened to these students in high school. Either the SEA students remained in the ESL program receiving elementary but comprehensible input regarding

culture and content areas, or they were mainstreamed into regular classes "with little academic substance: physical education, art, industrial arts, home economics" where they were "given passing grades because of conduct, attendance, attitude, and hard work" (p. 18). In both cases, Dufresne argues, SEA permanent resident students graduate from high school "without really understanding the structure of the language and still have speaking, writing, and reading problems" (p. 17).

CONCLUSION

Further study into the academic preparedness of SEA residents is necessary. One path of inquiry to pursue is that if three to four years in American schools is not sufficient for post-secondary academic success, perhaps more are. Collier (1989) reports that the little bit of research done on this question is mostly negative. Adolescents with little previous L2 exposure never catch up with their American counterparts. Likewise Johnson and Newport (1989) in their study of critical period effects on second language acquisition report that "success in (second language) learning is almost entirely predicted by the age at which it begins (before age 10"; p. 81), not the number of years one studies English in the classroom.

But even if more years of study is neither feasible nor effective, more attention to syntax and form in the K-12 classroom might give SEA students editing skills to apply in the college classroom. Recently, in the school district from which the majority of the SEAs, especially Hmong students, at this university come, a program to ESL-certify elementary school teachers is underway. As the curriculum of the certification program includes English grammar, second language acquisition, and the preparation of language awareness lessons, there is likely to be a positive impact on the written language skills of SEA students eventually matriculating to this university. Unfortunately, this program will not help the late-arriving SEA students that this study is about, those who have not had the benefit of either American elementary school or junior high school. Perhaps a structure-focused course as an adjunct to the normal high school English curriculum would be a step towards providing these students with some tools for self-editing in college.

In connection to our study, information should be gathered on the majority of SEA permanent residents enrolled at this university who placed directly into freshman English and were successful. Did they come to this country at a much younger age than the students who placed into the ESL program? Is their mean number of years in the American school system significantly greater than the SEA residents in our study? Other research should examine the background knowledge and reading com-

prehension of SEA residents in university ESL programs. If it is true as maintained in this paper that SEA residents have had little exposure to academic English prior to their placing into the university ESL program, they should score low on tests of reading comprehension and vocabulary. Again, university level ESL programs are good places to look for the data since placement tests of overall language ability are normally administered to all students entering these programs. The results of such an investigation could further refine the profile of the differences between permanent resident and foreign ESL university students.

To help SEA residents currently enrolled in university ESL writing programs, several actions can be taken. First, an effort should be made to improve SEA residents' explicit grammatical knowledge. Workshops for SEA residents should be held to help SEA residents consciously understand the structure of the sentence and inflectional morphology as well as acquire a vocabulary of grammatical terms. The knowledge gained might translate into better self-editing skills and more effective student-teacher talk about language.

Secondly, if it is true as maintained in this paper that many SEA residents are unfamiliar with academic styles of English, they should be enrolled in high-level, preacademic ESL reading courses. In such college-preparatory courses, students read chapters from introductory texts in fields such as business, sociology, biology, and economics. The vocabulary is explained, the rhetoric examined, and students are assigned writing tasks similar to the tasks they will be asked to perform when enrolled in the university. A semester or two in a reading course like this would help to familiarize SEA permanent resident students with the language that they will be expected to use as well as give them a brief introduction to the content they will be expected to master in college.

Additional effort should be given to establishing tutorial programs and study skills courses for SEA residents, especially after they begin undergraduate study. Teachers at the university ESL program where this study was done report that though their SEA permanent residents are highly motivated, attend regularly, and apply themselves faithfully, many make progress very slowly (Brendel et al., 1995). Tutors could help improve this situation not only by offering additional opportunity for revision, but also by helping SEA resident students understand the assigned readings and relate them to the writing assignment itself. Working with a tutor throughout ESL study as well as during the first year of university coursework would provide SEA permanent resident students with additional study and writing strategies that would help lead to success in their subsequent university careers.[6]

NOTES

[1] Throughout this paper I have used the term "SEA permanent residents" to refer to the 12 Hmong and 2 Vietnamese who compose one of the study groups. I also use the term to refer to Asian immigrants with limited academic experience in the home country. I use this term to distinguish the subjects from Chinese or Korean immigrants who typically have attained higher levels of literacy in their own language and formal education before immigrating. I realize that some Southeast Asians, particularly some Vietnamese, do not fit the above description. Nonetheless, I think a distinction between these two types of immigrants is a useful distinction to make and I stand by this serviceable, if defective phrase. I can think of no better term.

[2] Thanks to Sue Clark Kubley for the information she provided on subjects in the SEA permanent resident group. Thanks as well to the Julie Schneider and Jim Kelim of the ESL program at the University of Wisconsin-Stevens Point for allowing me access to their students and records.

[3] According to Bliatout et al. (1988), Hmong marks neither tense nor agreement within the verb group. According to Comrie (1990), the same is true for Chinese and Indonesian, though verbs can be suffixed to indicate aspect. As for Korean and Japanese, past tense is marked on the verb group through suffixation, but there is no subject-verb agreement.

[4] The following list is of all the connectors counted as being typical of written, academic language: *as a consequence of, consequently, despite, even if, even though, however, in spite of, instead of, nevertheless, on the other hand, rather than, thus, therefore.*

The following list is of all the connectors thought to be typical of spoken as well as written English and therefore, not counted as "logical connectors": *after, as, because, before, for example, when, while.* It should be noted that 'while' did count as a logical connector when used contrastively.

[5] One reviewer suggested that an explanation for these results might be found in research into critical period effects on second language acquisition which show that the earlier one begins acquiring the second language, the better one's eventual mastery of the language. Since the mean number of years foreign students in this study had studied English was 5.6 and the SEA residents only 4.81, it could be argued that the foreign students' one year head start accounts for their greater facility with written English. The problem, however, lies in determining what actually counts as "initial exposure."

Studies, such as Johnson & Newport (1989) and Slavov & Johnson (1995) that find correlation between "age of exposure" and ultimate mastery usually define "age of exposure" as "age of arrival in the United States with its resulting immersion in English" (Johnson & Newport, p. 81). Though the foreign students in this study did encounter classroom English a year earlier than the SEA permanent residents, they did so only two to three hours per week in the EFL classroom. This is quite different from the kind of exposure these critical period hypothesis researchers are talking about. In fact, what the foreign students experienced in the EFL context is more closely equated with "age of beginning formal English instruction," an independent variable that Johnson & Newport (p. 81) found had no significant correlation with test scores.

Moreover, since the mean number of years our SEA residents had been in the U.S. at the time of the study was 6.72, they must certainly have been exposed to English in that year and some months they were in the country looking for a place to settle. Some of this exposure may even have been immersion. Are we to conclude that the SEA residents had an earlier age of exposure to English than the foreign students and that the results of this study run counter to the studies mentioned above?

A more reasonable conclusion, it seems to me, is that given the vast differences in the kind and quantity of initial exposure these two groups experienced, the explanation for their differing performance is more likely to be found in a discussion of the ways their exposure to and study of the language differ.

[6] For a brief report on a tutorial program designed specifically to help SEA permanent residents see Balhorn, M. & Meyer, L. (1997). 'Otherness' and other imponderables: Teaching Hmong students academic writing. *The Quarterly of the National Writing Project, 19*(3), 10-16.

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APPENDIX A

Sample Essay Exam

The Secretary of the United States Department of Agriculture is soliciting citizen input on the implications of a vegetarian lifestyle. Since the Secretary is responsible both for setting national nutritional standards and for deciding U.S. land use policies, he and his staff feel that it is important to hear the opinions of average citizens.

Write an essay explaining your position on vegetarianism. Do your best to make your ideas convincing to those who set public policy.

Begin your essay with the following sentence (which you should *copy onto your paper):*

Every year more people adopt a vegetarian lifestyle.

Select one of the following three sentences as the second sentence of your essay and *copy it onto your paper:*

A. Many religions promote the use of vegetarian diets because such a lifestyle helps humans evolve to a higher level of existence.

B. Unfortunately, this trend means that more people are jeopardizing their health and vitality with an unnatural lifestyle.

C. A vegetarian lifestyle not only benefits the individual's health but also makes better use of our planet's resources.

DO NOT WRITE ON THIS PAPER

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APPENDIX B

Grammar Identification

Name: _____

I. Directions: Identify the underlined word as a "noun," "verb," "adjective," "adverb," "conjunction," or "preposition."

1. The Humane Society was established to shelter animals.
2. The birthrate in the United States has begun to decline.
3. Photos are developed in a darkroom.
4. Mary could not qualify for the Olympics.
5. People will leave the party when the food has been finished.
6. Mary quickly left the room.
7. John decided to quit the soccer team and do more studying.
8. Americans may like pizza but I sure don't.
9. That picture isn't really very pretty.
10. She sat down on the floor beside the TV set.

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Reviews

The *MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal* welcomes evaluative reviews of publications relevant to TESOL professions. In addition to textbooks and reference materials, these include computer and video software, testing instruments, and other forms of nonprint materials.

Bilingual Education: Teachers' Narratives, Nancy Lemberger. Malwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers, 1997.

As a first year bilingual teacher, I am struggling with many issues including learning curriculum, finding materials, doubting my own competence and advocating for my students in an environment that ranges from idealistic to indifferent to hostile. It was enormously validating then to read Lemberger's book and find that I shared the same questions, concerns, failures and triumphs of teachers in a wide variety of bilingual programs.

Lemberger states, " I wanted to show teachers' work and struggles over time from both historical and practical perspectives"(p. 2). She does this well, starting in the introduction with an accounting of her own experience. She then wrote individual narratives for eight teachers based on three to four hours of taped discussions and one to two days of observing and interacting in their classrooms. She made an effort to retain the voice of the teacher and each one's personalities and opinions come through strongly. They each approved their own narrative. In the end I was left feeling that I had just left an enormously satisfying conversation with understanding colleagues. And as she points out, by providing a place for teachers to be heard according to their own visions and not through the interpretive lens of a researcher, we get a chance to "make visible their efforts to counteract their own and their students' marginalization and their struggles to teach effectively and gain acceptance within the contexts of their particular schools" (p. 7).

In Chapter 2 Lemberger provides a historical and societal perspective, helpful to those who know little about the context of bilingual education. In Chapter 3 she provides a framework for comparing and contrasting the narratives according to themes centered around issues, theories and practices. There are two helpful grids that make it easy to orga-

nize thoughts and reactions to the text. These would make an excellent starting point for a course, staff development or literature discussion group. She also provides a chart that is an overview of the teachers' personal data, experience, education, program model and region. Again this is enormously helpful for people who are just starting to think about all the complexities of being a bilingual teacher. It gives a scaffold to hang ideas on.

Chapters 4 through 11 are the actual narratives, organized by program model and language to provide for easier comparison. Each chapter starts right in with the teachers giving some background and then talking about some of the following: their programs, their goals, their motivation, education, parent orientation, testing, successes, frustrations, curriculum, support system, school culture, management, teaching experience and advice they wish to share. The one I identified most strongly with was the one I almost skipped as being irrelevant to me, the Russian immigrant. Her frustration with trying to navigate the two cultures when the cultures keep changing is the same frustration that led me to pick up this book in search of answers. Knowing that someone with as much experience as she has, a native speaker of Russian who comes from the same place as many of her students, makes me feel more secure that my problems are not just my own, not just a cultural divide that I can't hope to cross. She describes modifications she has made in discipline and instruction and goals to meet the changing needs of the students.

In Chapter 12, Lemberger discussses the themes and issues that emerge from reading the teachers' narratives. The comparison of their different levels of bilingualism and how it affected their teaching styles was particularly useful to me. I was very uncomfortable with my own lack of fluency, but seeing the teachers compared this way helped me to realize that it is a difference, not a weakness, and can be used to my advantage. The other themes she discusses are: entry into the profession, certification and training, interactions with colleagues, administrative leadership, interactions with parents, changing communities and schools' accountability, instruction, use of the two languages, culture, curriculum and materials, and testing and assessment. These two to three paragraph summaries of some very complex issues would make wonderful starting points for discussion or action research projects.

Chapter 14 is aptly titled, "Theoretical, Background and Practical Information". Here Lemberger provides synopses of useful general foundation texts, historical texts and resources that explain program models. Addresses are supplied with descriptions and ISBN numbers of literature, tests, and curricula that teachers mentioned in the narratives as being particularly useful. Professional organizations and networks are included along with summaries of their goals and why they are important

resources. There are three appendices; one is a glossary of buzz words in the profession, and the others are sample interview questions and samples of materials the teachers used.

This is an easy read that leads to some thought-provoking questions about bilingual practices. I highly recommend it for individuals or groups, beginners or experienced, teachers, administrators or anyone affected by bilingual education. Everyone who reads it will be left with something to mull over and the voices of these eight teachers whispering in her ears.

THE REVIEWER

C-C O'Malley has been an ESL and bilingual teacher for the past ten years in Appleton and Green Bay, Wisconsin. She has taught in K-12, adult education and intensive college programs.

The Internet Activity Workbook, Dave Sperling. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents, 1999.

The Internet Activity Workbook, by author Dave Sperling (of "Dave's ESL Café" website fame), is a unique and original ESL course book. Its innovation lies in its use of an imaginative companion website <http://www.prenhall.com/sperling/> that provides dozens of links to other Internet sites. Those sites, which serve as the primary texts for learning American English and culture, form the basis for successfully performing the variety of reading, listening, speaking and writing activities throughout the workbook. Although not designated by the author for one particular level of learner, Sperling's workbook and website duo appear well suited for high-intermediate to advanced students, with potential application even in lower level classes under the guidance of an experienced or tech-savvy teacher. Adding to its functionality is the fact that the Internet Activity Workbook may be used either in a computer-based ESL classroom setting, as an out-of-class assignment for a traditionally-structured class, or individually by any learner who has computer access with a live Internet connection. Ultimately, it is the unusual interface between workbook and website which make this text so ingenious.

The Workbook and its companion website are divided into thirty chapters on various topics commonly studied in American ESL courses. These topics are presented alphabetically and include such representative themes as Animals, Cities, Family and Marriage, Food, Holidays, Literature, Movies, News, Sports, Weather and Work. After starting with the first chapter entitled "First Meeting," the rest of the book's units can be sequenced in any order because each stands on its own, adding to its

suitability as a supplement for courses with existing textbooks. Each chapter has a clear set of skill-focused goals, which are clearly stated at the beginning of the workbook and again on the first page of each chapter's website. For example, Chapter 3 entitled "Animals" lists the following objectives:

Speaking/Listening
    Talking about favorite animals
    Comparing animal characteristics
Reading/Writing
    Reading about existing and extinct animals
    Writing a paragraph or essay about animal sounds
Culture
    Comparing how different languages express animal sounds

The four or five activities that follow this introduction in each chapter skillfully guide students and instructor along, and resourceful teachers will be able to adapt the difficulty of the activity to meet the language level of the students. The range of activities is wide and includes corresponding via email with "Key Pals" (other learners of English elsewhere in the world), performing research on American and other world cultures, and searching for information on the Web to use in group discussions and writing assignments.

The companion website is handsome and well-organized, with an easy-to-use interface and an appealing design. When students visit the site, they are provided with links to appropriate Internet locations for gathering all the information they need to complete each task. There are also portions of the site that explain new vocabulary for each chapter, a "bulletin board" for students and instructors to share their thoughts and practice their English with other visitors to the website, and a place for students to post their own writings for all to see. At the conclusion of each chapter, students try to untangle a short puzzle clue using the Internet and language skills they have developed. Added together at the end of the workbook, these clues combine to form the address for a secret website only accessible to individuals who have completed the book — just one more way this text displays innovative uses of technology in language learning. In fact, it is clear why Mr. Sperling has named the text a "workbook" — it is precisely because his website is the true text for the course, and the workbook is, well, a workbook.

Now any author who begins a "To the Teacher" section with the decree "Please don't be afraid of this book!" must have reason to believe that some teachers will find the material intimidating. And for many, using computers or the Internet can be a daunting challenge. Therefore,

of notable interest to instructors contemplating adoption of the Internet Activity Workbook are some special features: an online teacher forum for sharing ideas about how to use the book and website in classes; and the author's encouragement to contact him via email about questions or comments that arise while teaching with his text. In addition, the website features include an individualized online syllabus manager for instructors using the text, an extremely helpful option if your educational institution doesn't provide all instructors with web-based course management tools. With the online syllabus, students can see assignment deadlines and other messages from their instructor while working on the companion website. To make this feature even more appealing is the step-by-step tutorial on implementing an online syllabus easily. (For those who find the book's coverage of Internet basics too elementary, I suggest reading another of Mr. Sperling's titles, *Dave Sperling's Internet Guide, Second Edition,* Prentice Hall Regents, 1998. In easy-to-understand, non-technical language, the Guide describes many of the features of and uses for the Internet in language learning and teaching. It also comes with a CD-ROM that provides hundreds of links to websites that all language teachers, and not just ESL professionals, will find useful.)

The Internet is a constantly changing environment, and therefore there will be potential glitches in any Internet-based product. The Workbook is no exception, as some of the links in various chapters are already obsolete. However, it is resourcefulness that defines many ESL teachers, and I trust that everyone will see the strong advantages of this new addition to the ESL library and not focus on the quick effects of our fast-changing world on it. Whether this workbook/website couple ultimately suits your individual course or program needs or not, the way in which it exploits the riches of the Internet and models effective and clever use of that wealth should be an inspiration to ESL teachers and learners everywhere.

THE REVIEWER

John Skinner is pursuing his Masters degree at the University of Minnesota, where he has taught ESL in both the Minnesota English Center and the Commanding English Program. He is active in the Computer-Assisted Language Learning Interest Section (CALL-IS) of TESOL and the Computer Assisted Language Instruction Consortium (CALICO). Currently, John is the Website Editor for the Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA) and an Administrative Fellow in the CLA Language Center.

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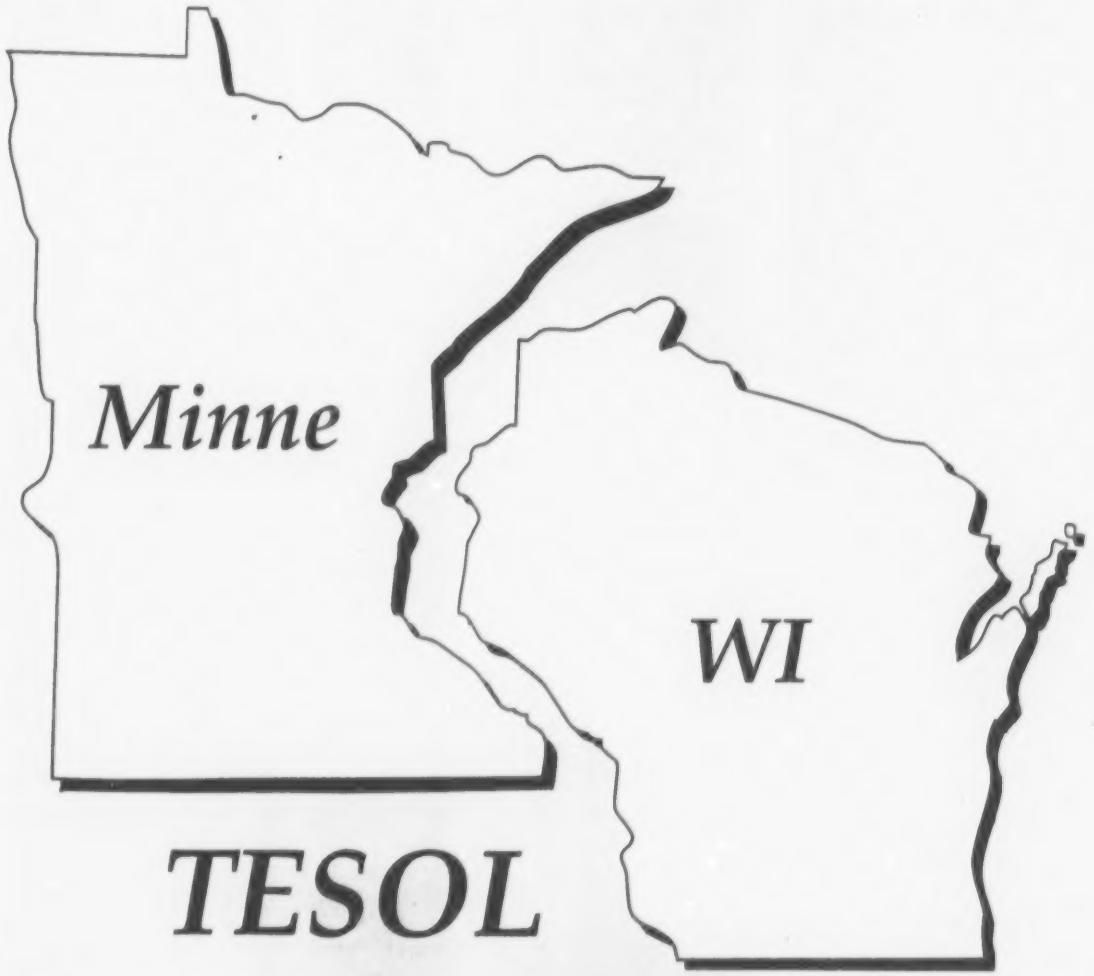

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  The *MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal* seeks to publish articles of importance to the profession of English as a Second Language in the states of Minnesota and Wisconsin. Articles in the following areas are considered for publication: instructional methods, techniques, and materials; research with implications for ESL; and issues in curriculum and program design. Book reviews and review articles are also welcome, as are short descriptions of work in progress on any aspect of theory or practice in our profession. Reports of work in the areas of curriculum and materials development, methodology, teaching, testing, teacher preparation and administration are encouraged, as are reports of research projects that focus on topics of special interest. Descriptions should summarize key concepts and results in a manner that makes the information accessible to our readership. We also invite commentary on current trends and practices in the TESOL profession, and we encourage responses or rebuttals to any articles or remarks published in the *Journal*. If the editors announce a themed volume, manuscripts will be requested on a specific area of interest.

- **Manuscripts**
  Manuscripts should conform to the style book followed by TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages), the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*. Please include a brief (e.g., 100-word) abstract and short biographical statement.

  Submit **five** paper copies of the manuscript and abstract. Upon acceptance of your article for inclusion in the journal, you will be asked to send us a computer diskette of your article.

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INTRODUCTION

This volume marks six years of collaboration between Minnesota and Wisconsin on the *MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal*, and over nineteen years since the beginning of the *MinneTESOL Journal*. We are pleased to continue this affiliate collaboration. This volume also marks our first theme-based collection. We have drawn together an array of articles focused on literacy to explore ways those in our profession are involved in this issue. The articles resonate with one another particularly with respect to identity and the development of literacy in all age groups.

Our first article, by Kathryn Henn-Reinke, addresses ways to support bilingual literacy development for native Spanish-speaking elementary students through small group work in the classroom. The issue of first language literacy development as it applies to developing literacy in English is crucial for all of us to consider regardless of the age group we may be teaching.

In the second article, Molly Collins suggests ways to foster literacy through a college-level course centered on the literature of the American immigrant. One of the significant contributions of this course is the ability of immigrant students to identify with the themes and characters in the novels. The course can thus provide an entry point into the culture of college for immigrant students.

In the third article, Patsy Vinogradov addresses models for adult ESL literacy development and presents practical activities and lessons. In combination, these three articles offer readers common principles as well as important differences in literacy development across age groups and settings.

In the fourth article, Michael E. Anderson, Bonnie Swierzbin, Kristin K. Liu, and Martha L. Thurlow present the issues involved in reading assessment and accommodation for English language learners in Minnesota. The authors include recommendations for professionals involved in giving the Basic Standards Tests in the state which can be applied immediately. It is a privilege to have the careful and sustained work on assessment done by the National Center on Educational Outcomes accessible to our readers.

This volume includes one book review. *New Immigrants in the United States*, edited by Sandra Lee McKay, presents an overview of immigrant studies and could be an important resource for many in our field.

Finally, two poems by Hawa Farah are included in this volume. Ms.

Farah was a student this past year in the Commanding English Program, General College, University of Minnesota; she wrote these poems when she was a senior at Roosevelt High School in Minneapolis, MN. Ms. Farah reveals a depth of understanding of the experiences of being an immigrant and the daily struggle for identity in confrontation with forces of assimilation and isolation. These poems serve to illustrate the important work TESOL professionals must perform: to support human beings in their efforts to read the world and learn the words of a new language through which to share their stories.

We wish to thank the members of the Editorial Advisory Board in both Minnesota and Wisconsin for all the effort that went into producing this volume.

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La Club de Lectura: *An Oasis for Struggling Readers in Bilingual Classrooms*

KATHRYN HENN-REINKE
University of Wisconsin-Oshkosh

La Club de Lectura is an option for assisting struggling readers in bilingual classrooms. In this action research project students in grades one through three worked in small groups with an educational assistant in a simplified reading program which draws from the principles of Reading Recovery and strategy-based literacy development. The results of the project were very positive and the model has been implemented in several other bilingual classrooms.

During the last several years I had the opportunity to work extensively with a number of classroom teachers and students in elementary bilingual classrooms. I noted that a majority of the students in any given classroom progressed at a predictable rate. However, there was always a small group within each class that lagged behind their classmates despite the concentrated efforts of the teachers to significantly change their rate of learning. As the semesters went along and I learned more about the basic principles of Reading Recovery and strategy-based literacy instruction[1] (Clay, 1990; Goodman, 1996; Swartz & Klein, 1997; Weaver, 1994), I realized that this type of specialized intervention might offer the best hope for helping these students maximize their learning potential. However, few urban districts had the financial resources to hire teachers specially trained in such reading programs. And finding such teachers who were also fluent in Spanish would be next to impossible. Therefore, the following plan emerged as an intervention option: focus on the underlying principles and format of Reading Recovery, assist students in developing some basic reading and writing strategies, and create a positive community of learners to support learning in small groups. Since the opportunity to work with individual students on a regular basis, as recommended by Reading Recovery, was not feasible, we explored the option of meeting with small groups of four students. Because classroom teachers would not have the luxury of working intensively for 45 minutes per day with these groups, it was decided that an experimental design would be developed in which educational assistants would be

trained in a simple reading intervention model and assist me in working with the students on a regular basis. This training would enable the educational assistants to reinforce the intervention strategies with the experimental group throughout the school day.

The project, which came to be known as *La Club de Lectura*, was carried out as an action research project in the spring of 1998. Two groups of four students each were selected to participate in the project. The groups met for 45 minutes two to three times per week over a nine week period, from January through March. All of the work of the project was carried out in Spanish.

SUBJECTS

Groups from two bilingual classrooms in the same school were included in the action research project. In each classroom I asked the teacher to recommend the students who were experiencing the greatest academic difficulty for inclusion in the project. One group of students consisted of four first grade students. One of the students was female and three were male. All of the students were learning to read in Spanish. Two of the students spoke only Spanish and two of the students were conversant in both Spanish and English. The second group of students consisted of three second grade students and one third grade student. Two of the students were male and two were female. All of these students were also learning to read in Spanish. The girls were Spanish dominant and the boys were Spanish-English bilingual.

All of the students selected for participation in this project were part of a developmental bilingual program in the district. Students enrolled in the program at this school were assigned to a self-contained bilingual classroom with a bilingual teacher and educational assistant. All students in the first grade classroom received daily instruction in ESL from an ESL specialist. Second and third grade students received ESL instruction on a small group, pull-out basis.

I met with the teachers and educational assistants prior to the beginning of the project to establish the process and goals for La Club de Lectura. I met informally with the educational assistants each day as we worked with the children to explain the process (and literacy development in general) more fully. One of the educational assistants had been with the first grade teacher for several years and was very familiar with the children and the classroom routine. The second and third grade educational assistant was hired shortly before the project began. She was a student in an educational program at a local technical college and became very involved in working with the children. I was somewhat familiar with the children prior to the beginning of the project. During the first semester I

had read to the first grade class once a week and had led them through various guided reading activities. In the second and third grade classroom I had worked with the children who were to be included in the project one day per week for about six weeks during the first semester to determine whether this project should be pursued. Because it seemed to have a positive effect, we expanded upon the plan for this study during the second semester.

SESSION FORMAT

The children were individually screened to determine their levels of literacy development and sessions were planned to meet the needs of each group. Each session followed the same general format and the same basic elements were used with both groups. The session began with students independently rereading stories previously introduced, which most of the students chose to read aloud, initially. The second component involved an activity that enabled students to focus on the features of sounds, syllables and word patterns, often referred to as *making words* (Clay, 1993; Cunningham, 1991). Students then wrote and shared a story. The session ended with the introduction of a new book. (Each of the components is described more fully below.) The order and content of the activities remained somewhat flexible depending on student reaction.

The groups varied in that the first graders did not begin a new book each day. We generally introduced a new story every fourth or fifth session with them. The first graders enjoyed making words and writing stories most and they put more effort into these activities. They very much enjoyed the stories and read them enthusiastically, but their interaction with print was fairly superficial. On the other hand, the second and third graders cared much less for writing and often found it difficult and tedious to write, especially in the beginning. Their efforts were focused on being able to accurately read and react to the printed page and this seemed to absorb them most completely.

Building community was an important component of this project. We felt that more relaxed students would be better risk-takers in La Club de Lectura environment. We conducted our sessions in the classroom so the students would not feel that they needed to be removed for special help. Other small group activities took place at the same time so we generally did not disturb one another. At the end of these small group sessions in the first grade classroom, other children often pleaded with us to allow them to join the group, which helped us confirm that we had not stigmatized the work of this group. Little needed to be done to build a sense of acceptance and openness toward our little groups since both of the classroom teachers emphasized these practices in the classrooms. I

also tried to involve the educational assistants in the activities as much as possible so that we shared responsibility for the groups' learning and so that they could continue to support the learning of these children during the rest of the day.

The four components of the program are outlined more fully below.

Rereading Books

Rereading books was a very important component of this project. As the students, especially at the second and third grade level, reread text at least three things happened: (a) They became more familiar with plots and characters, (b) they focused more fully on the use of the strategies, and (c) their confidence in themselves as readers increased. If they grew tired of certain books, we removed these books from the selection to be reread each day.

We introduced the use of picture, context or experience cues prior to reading and reinforced them during rereading. At the second grade level students were asked to identify how they knew certain words, how they could make certain predictions, why they reread certain passages, and what they would do to help themselves when they were stuck on a word or an idea. Being able to reiterate the basis for selection (i.e. metacognition) and the use of appropriate strategies were seen as key elements in helping students become successful readers.

Making Words

The various patterns used for making words (Cunningham, 1991) were an attempt to help children examine the sound and print features of words and relate these understandings to actual text. We used many words from the stories, as well as a systematic approach of addressing simple to complex letter-sound relationships.

For example, students are each given a set of small letter cards, containing a single letter on each card, to be used for the day's lesson. The lesson would begin with having the children form simple consonant-vowel combinations with the letter cards in Spanish, such as *da, de, di, do, du*. From here they proceed to the formation of words containing these syllables, such as *dedo, dama, duda* and *dino*. The ability to physically manipulate the letter cards helps students gain a better understanding of sound-symbol relationships. After the words are formed the students are asked to clap out the number of syllables in the word just formed. Syllable segmentation is another important skill that the children can then apply to their reading experiences. Because Spanish is so phonetic, students usually began to move quite rapidly through this activity once they learned the basic sounds and could see patterns in word formation.

Daily Writing

Daily writing activities initially served mostly to help students learn and solidify sound-symbol relationships. As the sessions progressed students came to recognize the interrelatedness of reading and writing and their writing reflected that enrichment.

Introducing New Books

Introducing new books provided an excellent vehicle for teaching the children various skills and strategies to support comprehension. Reading in its fullest sense involves communication between the author and the reader (Weaver, 1994). In order for this to happen the reading material must be of interest to the child. Therefore, we surveyed the students' interests and strove to select books which the children would enjoy reading and rereading. When connection between the author and the reader is broken by a loss of understanding on the part of the reader because of context, grapho-phonic, or prior knowledge miscues, the reader needs to have a repertoire of strategies to reconnect with the author (Clay, 1993; Fountas & Pinnell,1996; Goodman, 1996; Weaver, 1994). We strove to focus on four basic strategies with our students: picture clues, context clues, prior knowledge, and grapho-phonics.

STUDENT PROGRESS

The first sessions with the second and third grade group were very different from the final sessions. All of the students were at the emergent level of reading at the beginning. All four were being considered for retention. The third grade student was very conscious of his inability to read and seemed to find every possible excuse to avoid interaction with print. He always needed to tell a story or get a pencil--anything to take attention away from the work at hand. He would look at the pictures in the books but didn't seem to see how they could help him with the story. He had transferred to this school at the beginning of the year and had quickly gained a reputation for having discipline problems.

During the final week of this study the third graders in the class were to take the state level third grade reading test. The Reading Resource teacher included our third grader, Eliseo, in the testing group but feared he would be totally frustrated by the experience. Instead, he happily took the test and proudly announced that he'd used his reading strategies, especially *¿Tiene sentido?* (Does that make sense?), when he got stuck. His discipline problems declined significantly and it was now difficult to get him to stop working at the end of a session. It was most rewarding to watch Eliseo come to see himself as a capable learner.

The two second grade girls, Juanita and Nadia, also began the sessions as non-readers. They spoke very limited English and were both extremely shy. Sharing the writing samples at the end of the sessions provided an opportunity for the students to get to know one another and this helped both of the girls become more relaxed. Juanita and Nadia first began to show development through the making words segment of the lessons. From there they began to enjoy reading and rereading their books. By the end of the project both girls had developed solid control of context and word analysis strategies. They still needed to work on reading fluency but that would improve with continued opportunities to read. It also seemed that their growing command of conversational English was a factor in their emerging confidence as learners. Although the sessions were conducted in Spanish, they initiated the practice of beginning and ending our work together by sharing little anecdotes in English. They now laughed more frequently and spontaneously participated in the learning activities and conversations.

Jaime was a bit ahead of the other three in terms of reading ability. By the end of the sessions, he was reading at a second grade level and his teacher placed him in a reading group with proficient second grade readers, where he worked very successfully for the remainder of the school year. His fluency was very strong and he now read aloud only when asked to do so or to share a passage with the group. He was the only one of the group who was no longer inhibited by books with more text and fewer pictures.

On various occasions each of the students in this group independently practiced rereading in order to share something they had enjoyed or to show parents, teachers, classmates, or siblings how they were improving in reading. The classroom teachers were very instrumental in creating opportunities for the students to showcase their newfound reading expertise.

All four students in this second and third grade group experienced high levels of anxiety when it came to writing and none of them could easily read back their own writing initially. By the end, however, all of their writing could be deciphered not only by me but by an outside reader as well. Veronica, the educational assistant for this group, responded to their requests to write a long story by having them do TV story rolls, featuring frames from a story written and drawn on a large roll of paper. We helped them focus on outlining a problem and solution before they began writing their stories. Doing a more involved story at this point really served to move writing ability forward, but the important issue here was that the impetus to move in this direction came from the students, indicating their readiness for more sophisticated writing activities. Earlier in the semester they wanted to simply copy the books they

were reading. Our first reaction was to allow only original writing, but on closer examination it became apparent that they were doing a great deal of rereading in this activity. It also took some pressure off them to write independently and gave them a sense of accomplishment to have something down on paper. They often shared these writings with others in the classroom. As their confidence in writing grew, the copying gradually disappeared and they moved into independent story and journal writing. Their development in writing ability grew as a result of the collaborative practice they received in the classroom both from this project and from their teacher.

In grade one at the start of the project, all of the students could recognize the letters of the alphabet and experienced little confusion with individual letter sounds. All were enthusiastic participants in La Club de Lectura and all loved books and stories. But all of them seemed reluctant to write independently at first. They preferred stringing a few words together from the word wall and other sources of environmental print around the room. The sentences were often unrelated to one another and generally began with *Amo a mi mamá* (I love my mother) or *Mi Mamá es bella* (My mother is pretty). By the end of the sessions, they were able to write several related sentences and read them back to the group. José, for example, had joined a soccer team and was so excited about it that soccer became his only topic of writing. Writing from a topic sentence was being developed by the classroom teacher on a daily basis and we were able to reinforce that concept in La Club de Lectura.

In the beginning none of the first graders was able to work very independently at making words. By the end they were able to readily make three and four syllable words that followed regular sound-letter patterns, and separate these words into syllables. The educational assistant for this group and I noticed that the students were not transferring knowledge of word analysis to their reading, so we began to focus more on helping the children make links between the making words activities and actual reading. The first graders happily reread previously introduced books each day, but after a couple of weeks they had not moved closer to one-to-one correspondence between voice and print. This indicated that developmentally they remained at an emergent stage of literacy, where they focused on the illustrations for meaning and ignored the print. We divided the group into pairs for this segment and each of us read with one child at a time to help each child focus more on text. With very little intervention other than the individualized focus and having the students track the words with their fingers as they read, there was soon a much closer voice-to-print match.

Joshua was much younger than the others in the first grade group and initially it was very difficult for him to focus on the activities. He

worried much more about morning snack than about his reading or writing, though he truly loved stories. As time went on he began to focus on the activities of the group more fully. Joshua used strategies that he had acquired up to that point very effectively, even though they proved to be quite cumbersome. For example, he knew all of the letters, sounds, and picture symbols for the alphabet, so if he wanted to write a word he would isolate the sound and then recall the picture symbol which would trigger the letter form for him. For the word *mi*, for example, he would say *mmmmm de mesa*, then look at the picture of the *mesa* (table) to double check the letter *m*. Then he would say *iiiiiiii de isla* (island) and locate *isla* and write *i*. This process gradually became more automatic for him and his writing speed improved a great deal.

Carolina was extremely quiet at first so it was difficult to identify her learning needs. Selecting a topic for writing and completing journal entries were particularly troublesome for her. There were several words that Carolina did not pronounce clearly and this interfered with her spelling ability. But Carolina was one of those overnight success stories. It seemed that one day she came to school and she could read. She began using grapho-phonic and context cues more regularly. Her reading rate slowed, a clear sign of the transition, as she moved from telling the story from the pictures to actually reading the text. Her confidence began to grow with her improved reading ability and a pretty smile began to appear on her face with greater frequency.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This type of intervention in the bilingual classroom merits further study. In the second and third grade group all of the students moved from emergent to strong transitional-advanced beginning level readers. None of the students was retained, though summer school was required as a condition for promotion for three of the four students. Informal follow-ups one and two years later revealed that the students still at the school (two students moved away) were working at grade level and had a positive attitude about school and their own academic development.

The second and third grade group was very easy to work with and moved forward very quickly. It seemed that even though they were delayed in their reading ability they had already acquired a background understanding of the reading process. They quickly learned to apply the reading strategies to gain meaning from text, indicating they probably had some understanding of what the strategies were and how they could be used but needed individualized assistance in making the application work.

Everyone involved with the project agreed that for both groups the

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time frame was too short. We met two or three times per week, depending on the scheduling of other activities, but it was clear that meeting four or five times per week for about 12-15 weeks would be much more beneficial for the students. The small groups of four students worked effectively for the second and third grade group, probably because the level of literacy development was fairly similar for each member of the group. Meeting with first grade students in a group of four was very difficult and perhaps working in pairs would have been more effective. There was a much broader range of reading and writing ability with this group than with the older group, although differing levels of maturity and attention span may have influenced the work of this group more than differences in academic level.

One of the challenges of a proposal of this nature is to provide the training and support necessary for educational assistants. I found that I could give the assistants enough background to effectively conduct the sessions but I didn't have the time needed to help them understand the philosophy and theory behind what they were doing. Over the course of several semesters this understanding could be developed with regular in-service sessions, which would vastly improve teacher skills for working with delayed learners. Perhaps a joint district-university grant could help put the training in motion.

Language development was definitely a factor in the reading process. Some of the students involved in this project had transferred from other schools and were reading in Spanish when it was not clear that Spanish was their dominant language. Testing for language dominance is a necessary part of the beginning reading process. Students experience greater difficulty when they must try to read in their less dominant language, which puts them at greater risk of falling behind their peers in academic progress (Freeman & Freeman, 1996; Ovando & Collier, 1998). Proficiency in English seemed to play a role in the way the students in the second and third grade group perceived themselves. For example, Nadia was very anxious to show off her expanding fluency in English and this seemed to parallel her growth in Spanish reading and her level of confidence in herself. It could be that she was merely reflecting the positive effects of newfound school success, or it could be that she perceived that students with English proficiency had greater access to learning in the school setting.

Students who are experiencing difficulty in the classroom need individualized attention. However, outside assistance generally is only effective when it complements the work already being done by the classroom teacher. In this project both of the classroom teachers were very confident, competent teachers. They understood the work of this project and collaborated fully with me. Therefore, they were able to support and

extend the work begun in La Club de Lectura during the rest of the day. They provided opportunities for the students to showcase their work and occasionally allowed them to invite a few classmates to join our sessions. Students' pride in their accomplishments was evident in both groups and they appeared to view themselves as a more integral part of the class as their skills grew. This seemed to happen not only because they received the individual support they needed for literacy development, but also because their efforts and growing competence were celebrated by the classroom teacher, making the students feel like more legitimate members of the learning community. In this way La Club de Lectura did, in fact, function as an oasis for students who were struggling with literacy development.[2]

NOTES

[1] Reading Recovery (Clay, 1990) is a program designed for students who have not experienced success in acquiring literacy skills by the end of grade one. Specially trained teachers meet individually with students and work through a prescribed sequence of activities designed to help students master the cueing systems of prior knowledge, syntax, semantics, and grapho-phonics. Strategy-based literacy instruction enables the classroom teacher to assist students in the development and application of strategies related to the cueing systems.

[2] The La Club de Lectura model has since been implemented in several other bilingual classrooms in first through third grade. The feedback gained from this study was taken into account in subsequent work. For example, educational assistants and teachers now participate in a training session at the beginning of the school year and educational assistants receive ongoing in-service sessions throughout the school year on La Club de Lectura and literacy development in general. There is a more formalized assessment procedure used throughout the program and the beginning sessions have been redesigned to help emergent readers focus more fully on print. Most students who enter the project exit within about six months with grade level skills in reading and writing.

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The Multicultural Classroom: Immigrants Reading the Literature of the American Immigrant Experience

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University of Minnesota-Twin Cities

This qualitative study focuses on the experiences of immigrant and refugee college freshman enrolled in an immigrant literature course at the University of Minnesota, and discusses how such courses fit into a theory of multicultural education. Students were interviewed and surveyed to explore the ways in which this course was accessible and meaningful for them. The purpose of this study was to assess whether or not students shared a common identity as immigrants; if studying relevant themes facilitated the development of academic skills; and how an immigrant literature course can provide an entry into the culture of college for immigrant students.

For immigrant and refugee students, entering the university is an experience that may be filled not only with hope and opportunity, but also with tension and opposition. Multicultural theory proposes that the academy has been biased in favor of Anglo culture. This has contributed to the low rates of minority and language minority attendance and graduation in post secondary education. Immigrant students face this dual experience in academia of both linguistic and cultural difficulties. These obstacles can prove formidable as students try to find their place in the university, and try to adapt to the culture of the university and its expectations. They may feel like outsiders in the university setting, and may encounter these cultural and language barriers as insurmountable obstacles. Moreover, immigrants or refugees have varied educational backgrounds ranging from college completion in their home countries to an American high school diploma to an interrupted or marginal education. For teachers seeking to provide relevant and engaging materials, the literature of immigrants can be used with positive results. While students may come from many different backgrounds and experiences, they share a common identity as immigrants.

In this study, first year students enrolled in General College course 1364: *Literature of the American Immigrant Experience* discussed their expe-

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riences as college freshmen. Surveys and interviews of the students found that they shared an identity as immigrants and identified with themes in the literature. Students thus were motivated to learn. Finally, students felt more knowledgeable about college culture after taking this course.

The Commanding English (CE) program at the University of Minnesota's General College is a program primarily for refugee and immigrant students who have been accepted to the university, but who score between 64 and 79 on the Michigan English Language Assessment Battery (MELAB) test. The program is designed to teach academic skills with an intense focus on developing English language skills. A total of ten Commanding English students participated in a survey (see Appendix); they were representative of the students in the CE program, with a variety of ages and countries of origin. Ages ranged from recent high school graduates to students in their late twenties. Countries of origin included Vietnam, Bangladesh, the former Soviet Union, Sudan, Haiti, Honduras and Venezuela. Five of these students were selected for follow-up interviews; they also represented this diversity of ages, experiences and countries of origin.

GC 1364: *Literature of the American Immigrant Experience* is required for Commanding English students as part of the curriculum of the program. The stated course goals are to "explore American immigrant experiences through literature by and about American immigrants"; to build fluency, increase vocabulary, and develop critical thinking skills "by participating in discussions and by completing written responses to the readings"; and to develop academic skills in writing and reading (Course Syllabus, 1998). Course assignments call for a high volume of reading both of literature and expository text. Writing assignments in this course are also quite substantial. For example, the students in this study wrote a daily journal, three take home essay tests, and a course research project. Attendance and participation in discussion are also required and considered in the grade. The reading for this course Fall quarter, 1998 covered a range of immigrant experiences from Europe, Asia and Mexico: Students in this study read the novels *Breadgivers* by Anzia Yezierska, *Nisei Daughter* by Monica Sone and *Living Up the Street* by Gary Soto. A course packet, also required reading, encompassed a variety of topics ranging from background historical information designed to provide context to the literature, to poetry, to modern issues in immigration. Themes of immigration featured in the literature and packet were: reasons for immigration, old world-new world, immigration policy, discrimination, language and culture, and intergenerational conflict.

IDENTITY AND THE UNIVERSITY

When immigrant and refugee students enter an American university, they are expected to fit a discourse model, based on standard academic and rhetorical models, which is implicit and culturally based (Soter, 1992). In fact, the college freshman experience requires a new level of literacy for all students (Johns, 1992). This new level of literacy is itself defined by culture, and academic literacy in the United States has been defined in a very specific way by the dominant culture (Walters, 1992). Furthermore, according to the available research it can be maintained that "literacy involves special community- and context- specific ways of taking from texts, rather than merely knowledge of certain discrete facts" (Walters, 1992, p. 13). African American students in one study, for example, experienced "not so much linguistic [problems] as code related ones" (Soter, 1992, p. 51). This implies that the ways students respond to and interpret texts are rooted in their home cultures, and may vary from culture to culture. Furthermore, students may feel that the university sees their home culture and language as only a deficit to be overcome in order to succeed (Lu, 1992), and that success in academia requires giving up their home culture. Students may resist what they see as an attempt by the university to redefine them as mainstream. Students risk "losing their difference" (Gay, 1993, p. 30) in the process of becoming proficient academics. They may come to feel alienated from their home communities:

> Minority and foreign students face the possibility of being confronted with a disciplinary language and culture so distant from their own that to join such a culture would mean alienating themselves from other highly valued personal and occupational communities at home. (Casanave, 1992, p. 174)

Universities often maintain an ideology of acculturation which blames students' resistance to and fear of acculturation for their lack of educational success (Lu, 1992).

Research reveals that students from outside the dominant culture have a very tenuous relationship to the university and may experience alienation from the university as they do not see their experiences or cultures represented in its curriculum. Additionally, the type of literacies that are required and expected at the university are culturally based, and not explicitly explained. The role of the instructor then becomes highly significant in aiding the student in academic success. Mainstream American culture as represented by the university may leave immigrant and refugee students without schemata to utilize for their success. By studying the literature of other immigrants, students who may not share a home

culture can bring their identities as immigrants to the course. Students can use relevant personal experiences in which they are the experts in course discusssions and reading, and their common identity is validated.

Students in this study identified strongly as immigrants. They saw themselves as part of a larger group of people who had made their way from another country to make their home in the United States. Despite their diverse circumstances, ages, and countries of origin they felt a connection with others in similar circumstances. And furthermore, they felt that being an immigrant carried positive connotations. Alex (names have been changed), a Venezuelan student stated, "We identify as immigrant. We don't see you black or white... when it comes to immigration, the INS, or society in the United States, you are an immigrant no matter where you are from."

Survey results showed an overall positive correlation to questions about student understanding of the experiences and contributions of immigrants past and present. Students indicated that they had a better understanding of the category *immigrant* from GC 1364, and that students felt they had learned meaningful information about immigrants past and present. Students saw immigrants as contributing in large ways to American society: "American society doesn't realize that this country was built by immigrants," Alex complained. John, an older student from the Sudan, stated,

> When people really live in the U.S., they should learn these things [immigration history], because it [*sic*] is the ABC of the culture of the U.S. So to learn this course, it means that they are shaping themselves and America's shaping them too to be part of the United States.

Overwhelmingly, students reported that they could see themselves or their experiences in the themes of the literature. Students identified such themes as *discrimination*, *language*, and *culture* (student surveys). Jessica, a 21 year old Haitian woman student said,

> It's like a lot of the experiences, a lot of the things they talk about, is [*sic*] familiar experience. For example the book we had with Sara, *Bread Givers*, it's like things you experienced with your parents and growing up in America.

Another student, David, a student from Bangladesh, said, "We can relate to the books... [they are] I feel [in] someways similar to me." This identity as immigrant makes the literature of the course relevant to students who are themselves immigrants.

GAINING ENTRANCE TO THE ACADEMY

In addition to appealing to this shared and positive identity, students also perceived the course as providing a part of their acquisition of skills needed by the university. Immigrant and refugee students in the Commanding English Program at the University of Minnesota face the challenge of meeting the harder tasks of college, much as any other college freshman, but often have the extra challenges of being poorly prepared for higher education, and the need to improve their English before they can achieve their educational goals. GC 1364, as a college literature course, provides ample opportunity for students to do a large amount of both reading and writing. Students learn to complete the analytical and discourse requirements of writing about literature, while completing a heavy reading load of 50-75 pages of reading per class. Skills taught in this course specifically include reading for main points and literary themes, journal writing, literary analysis, and research on themes of the class.

Students who participated in this study felt that not only did they learn new academic skills, but also that their motivation to learn and succeed was positively impacted by the relevance of the curriculum to their experiences. They reported that the literature in turn reinforced their commitment to their own success. Survey responses designed to elicit information regarding students' feelings about their academic development indicated that students felt that their reading and writing skills increased as a result of this course. Students felt that GC 1364 was a good introduction to college courses, and the level of work required in college. As David said, "It was a lot of reading, so it helps me to improve my reading skills." Alex, a college graduate in his own country, felt that for other students, this course represented the transition from high school to college. He said, "In college you have to read a lot, and you have to get used to it. It gives you kind of a sense of what's going to be the next four years[*sic*]." Jessica indicated that for her too, this was a transition, that in GC 1364 she learned how to write an essay for the first time. Other students indicated that they learned specific writing tasks, such as writing introductions, identifying themes, and writing summaries, essays and journals.

Students felt that their motivation to complete course tasks was positively impacted by the relevance of the literature. Students themselves connected the relevance of these themes to their own motivation to succeed and engage themselves in the course work. Students in this study reported that their interest in course materials made them want to complete assignments. As Jessica said, when reading *Bread Givers*, "There were times it wasn't due, I didn't have to read a page of it, but I read it because it was interesting. I feel like I have to read more just to know

what was going to happen next." David agreed that GC 1364 affected his motivation to read and write; as he said, "Sometimes when I wrote my paper, my assignment, I think about I put myself on it [*sic*], and it will help me to write more and more, plus sometimes I use my own evidence and own example, so sometimes papers getting more stronger [*sic*] with evidence." Jaime, a 20 year old Honduran student felt that the themes of the course made it interesting to learn and participate, and that the course wasn't "just like a class you are supposed to take...or you just want to take. It is...like you can feel it inside, you can say, OK, now I know what's going on...I think that was interesting and you know I like it."

Furthermore, students felt that by reading about a topic with relevance to their own experiences, their ability to learn was facilitated. David clearly viewed his experiences as an immigrant as beneficial in taking this class, stating that this experience would put him at an advantage over a non-immigrant student enrolled in the same course: "If you ask some students who didn't go to any other country, who are not immigrants, they don't know what is feel like immigrant [*sic*]...and it's going to be hard for them...for the immigrant person it's I think easy." For John, the course was very positive in facilitating his learning "because the students were immigrants, and could understand about the college life more perfectly."

Significantly, students indicated that learning about the experiences of other immigrants helped them to remain committed to their own education and success in America. Themes and experiences that students read about gave students examples of immigrant success and challenges that the students could use to meet their own struggles in college. John reported that he used the experiences of the immigrants he learned about in GC 1364 in his daily and college life: "You can use the previous immigrants' experience to solve problems." He stated that for immigrant students facing difficulties, learning the history of immigrants will encourage their success, because "they will know before them, there were some people who were here, some immigrants, who come here and have the same problems, so why not them? Why not them to overcome [*sic*] those problems too?"

Students in this study indicated that through reading about other immigrants' struggles and concerns, they were able to develop a stronger commitment to their own success, and develop strategies for success based on the experiences of other immigrants before them. As Jaime put it, "When I was taking that class, I just focused on how the immigrants...just worked hard in order to succeed and I learned from there that I can do something for myself, and this is an opportunity for everybody." The experiences in the literature itself reinforced students' own motivation to achieve success, and to meet challenges.

THE CULTURE OF ACADEMIA

Some of these challenges have to do with understanding and maneuvering in the new culture of college—the not-so-explicit rules and standards of academia. In addition to developing students' academic skills, instructors in the academy concerned with the success of their immigrant and refugee students often face both the task of easing the alienation experienced by their students, and of making the non-explicit language and discourse tasks clear and accessible to their students. For instructors who are seeking to make their courses inclusive, work needs to be done that does more than "acknowledge (tolerate) difference and more than celebrate difference as 'interesting material'" (Gay, 1993, p. 34). Instructors need to find ways to help their students become insiders in the culture of academia through not only curriculum changes, but instructional changes as well.

Instructors need to make the rules and expectations clear and accessible to all students (Bartholomae, 1993; Delpit, 1988; Rose, 1985; Soter, 1992). Instructors who have creating a multicultural university as their goal have a complicated role: not simply teaching the curriculum, but also the implicit academic discourse and rhetorical expectations to their students. In order for the student to succeed, "the student has to learn to speak our language, to speak as we do" (Bartholomae ,1993, p. 13). Therefore, the role of the instructor is to help students become insiders in the academy. Educational programs that ignore the culture of power which exists in classrooms and that do not make the rules of that culture of power explicit do a disservice to minority students because "to act as if the culture of power does not exist is to ensure that the power status quo remains the same" (Delpit, 1988, p. 285). Academic instructors have themselves achieved a high level of academic success that shapes their expectations as academic readers. When students do not meet these expectations, regardless of their linguistic proficiency, they are likely to fail.

While all beginning college students need to take on new academic tasks and skills to meet the demands of college, for the immigrant or refugee student, the culture of academia may be unfamiliar and strange. A student may feel that the expectations not clearly stated in the syllabus pose the most difficult challenges. Expectations about how to succeed, how to communicate with professors and instructors, or even how grades will be determined may be new concepts to the immigrant student. Students in this study indicated that they learned important information in GC 1364 about exactly these less explicit expectations of the college culture.

Most students in this study felt that the course GC 1364 was a good introduction to college life. More than simply improving skills, this course

gave students an introduction to the academic expectations of college. Students reported that the following features of college culture were new to them: working hard, communicating with instructors, completing work for deadlines, setting and achieving goals, and realizing that grades are based on performance and are not arbitrary. As John stated,

> We went to class, we worked hard, we got grades and no one discriminated you [*sic*] because it depends on what you did. And with that competition, I feel ok, I feel like, you get what you did [*sic*]. And it's good. I don't put myself down. Because I work hard, I got a commendation from the instructors or from other friends. So equality is there.

Learning about relevant themes can facilitate the transition from previous educational experiences to the culture of college by allowing students to draw on their experiences as they enter the world of American academia.

CONCLUSION

The pedagogical implications of this study are most significant in the area of developing an inclusive and relevant curriculum for college level immigrant students. This study found that a course on immigration literature fits strongly within the framework of multicultural education. As Kutz, Groden and Zamel write, multicultural curriculum gives "students who are frequently marginalized an opportunity to see their own cultural perspectives included in course material " (1993, p. 85). With immigrants and refugees, teachers may struggle to find relevant themes and curriculum for students from a wide variety of backgrounds. The curriculum of GC 1364 gives immigrant students this opportunity. Students responded positively to the themes in this literature, seeing their experiences reflected and sharing a common identity that transcended cultural background.

In addition to motivating students, an immigration literature course may provide instructors with an opportunity to open doors to academic success for their students by using this relevant material to engage the student in academic tasks and requirements. Students reported that they could see themselves in the literature, and that they could draw on their own experiences to complete academic tasks such as interpretation, analysis, and formal written course requirements. Students were able to use their own expertise to enhance discussion and course assignments. This study shows that immigrant students' transition to the college environment is facilitated when they see themselves in the curriculum of the university. Through the course design, students acquired important skills, both academic and cultural, needed to succeed in a college environment,

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which was in turn reinforced by the experiences read about in the literature and course packet.

There is a need for relevant and engaging curriculum for immigrant students in the college curriculum. Using literature of the American immigrant experience, this need is addressed by bringing relevant and meaningful materials into the classroom. Additionally, it is hoped that this study will lead to a better understanding of how immigrant students construct their identity, and how, within the framework of multicultural education, a course studying the experiences of immigrants is a relevant and meaningful introduction to college level work and college culture for students who are themselves immigrants.

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APPENDIX

1364 Literature Survey

Strongly Agree		Don't know		Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

1. From taking GC 1364, I understand more about the issues facing immigrants to the United States in the past.

2. I don't understand about the issues facing immigrants today any better because of GC 1364.

3. Reading about the experiences of other immigrants is a good introduction to college courses for students who are immigrants.

4. From taking GC 1364, I understand more about the issues facing immigrants now.

5. After taking GC 1364, I feel that I am not more prepared for college reading courses.

6. I didn't learn anything new about past immigrants to the United States in GC 1364.

7. Reading literature on another topic would be a better introduction to college reading.

8. I am better prepared for college-level reading as a result of the reading and writing I did for GC 1364.

A Look at ESL Instruction for Literacy-Level Adults[1]

Patsy Vinogradov
University of Minnesota-Twin Cities

Refugees and immigrants with little or no literacy in their first languages continue to enter adult ESL classrooms. Particular attention from adult ESL educators is required to meet the needs of these literacy-level students. After exploring various factors that affect this population, the author presents six goals for an ESL literacy course, which are then detailed in a curriculum matrix. Moving from course design to daily classroom activities, the author suggests a series of principles for working with literacy-level adults as well as a sample lesson.

Refugees and immigrants from across the globe with limited native language literacy continue to enter the United States and ESL classrooms. This population of students presents a particular challenge for ESL providers. "Not only must [refugees] possess certain minimal literacy skills to meet the demands of daily life in this country, but they must learn a new language at the same time" (Haverson & Haynes, 1982, p. 6).

These students are often sent into beginning ESL classes where the basic ability to read and write is assumed. However, it has become clear that "a special class is necessary because the non-literate student has problems that require special attention" (Ranard & Haverson, 1981, p. 7). ESL professionals must first understand who these students are and what factors affect their learning.

The following article explores a range of issues related to successful instruction of literacy-level ESL adults. Following a brief description of the types of programs available and factors that affect these students, unique characteristics of these learners and suggested curricula are detailed. Surprisingly little has been written about how best to meet the needs of literacy-level adults. This paper attempts to offer some tentative answers.

WHO ARE THE STUDENTS?

Three major categories of adult ESL students need literacy instruction: pre-literate, non-literate, and semi-literate learners.[2] While each

group is distinct, together they form what I will refer to as *literacy-level ESL students*. The definitions that follow are adapted from Haverson and Haynes (1982) and Shank (1986). The definitions refer to the students' literacy and education in their *native* languages.

Pre-Literate students

These learners have had no contact with print in their native languages. Included in this category are students from an oral tradition in which there is no written language or whose language has only recently developed a written form. In the Twin Cities, for example, many of the Hmong speakers are pre-literate learners. It should be noted that pre-literate students may be so only temporarily. Pre-literate learners may encounter print in their native languages later in life or after immigration or forced migration to the United States.

Non-Literate students

These students have no reading or writing skills but come from a language group that does have a written form. Their literacy level stems from their lack of education rather than a lack of print environment. Some learners in this category have lived in rural areas where written language could not be easily accessed and was not needed for daily life. Other learners' lives have been disrupted by war, and public education in their society has been nonexistent for perhaps a generation of learners or more. In the Twin Cities area, many Somali, Ethiopian, Mexican, and Vietnamese speakers may be considered non-literate.

Semi-Literate students

Learners in this category have had very little formal education in their native language, probably not more than 3-4 years. They have had some exposure to print in their native languages and may be able to recognize some common words by sight. Haverson and Haynes (1982) speculate that this category of literacy-level students is the largest, but this may not be true for the Twin Cities. As Minnesota's immigrant population changes to include large groups from Somalia and Laos, the number of pre-literate and non-literate students rises. In the Twin Cities, semi-literate students come from all over the globe, but many are from East Africa, South America, Mexico, and Southeast Asia.

TYPES OF PROGRAMS

Naturally, ESL programs differ greatly, but commonalties in goals persist. Literacy-level ESL students are often new arrivals to the United

States. Their immediate needs are for basic survival in their new environment, and a major part of this goal is employment. Another aim of literacy-level ESL programs is to build a foundation in literacy skills that will allow the learner to continue acquiring English in mainstream ESL classes. Such a foundation of skills includes basic English literacy.

To say that a certain program teaches only survival English, English for work, or basic literacy skills is to greatly simplify the work of adult ESL education. What actually occurs in a classroom is a mix of the goals, assumptions, and preferences of the program, the textbook, and the teacher. What follows is by no means a description of specific programs but rather an explanation of the three focuses (survival, work, literacy) that programs tend to take. I must emphasize that I have yet to find a program that deals with only one of these purposes. Each program I have had contact with includes a mix, but even so, one overall focus is always apparent.

Survival English

Many literacy-level students are new refugees to the United States. Therefore, most programs for such students are focused on *survival skills*. Survival programs are intended to ease the difficulties of resettlement by teaching immigrants the skills they need to function in their new culture right away. Survival skills include basic language and skills needed in daily living. Topics covered in these classes include introducing yourself, buying food, buying clothes, banking, filling out forms, calling 911, seeing a doctor, and so on. The emphasis is on oral language that students need immediately to function independently in their new environment. Written language in Survival English programs is limited.

English for Work

Within the Survival English context there is another emphasis in literacy-level ESL programs: job readiness and job retention. Oral language in such programs focuses on job interviews, following instructions, asking questions at work, calling in sick, and other work-related language functions. Written language is limited to print the student is likely to encounter: forms, safety instructions, and written job-related directions. English for Work programs also may introduce other essential skills such as basic mathematics and chart reading, as well as cultural topics such as appropriate dress and behavior at an American workplace.

After completing Survival English or English for Work courses, students may, in fact, be able to function in daily life. They can go to the store, get a job, call 911, and so on. I do not question the value of these

skills, but to achieve the self-sufficiency these programs so highly regard, students must also be prepared for further study of English. Programs like those listed above must also introduce skills that will prepare the student to continue studying English. Without further study, students do not have the tools to move up from entry-level jobs; they are left with only the English they need to get by, not what they need to progress and to become full participants in their communities. These needs can be addressed by what should be the final and long-term goal of literacy-level ESL instruction: English literacy.

ESL Literacy

If educators and social workers expect refugee students to truly resettle in the United States, they must help them achieve more than survival English. While Survival English and English for Work may be the first goals of an ESL program, these should not be the last. "Developing literacy for learning--for example, reading to review text and aid memory or writing to take notes on information presented or read--is essential for less literate adult immigrant learners if they are to succeed in mainstream programs" (Savage & Mrowicki, in Savage, 1993, p. 26). The demand for ESL is great, and literacy-level students should be prepared to continue their study of English, either in ESL classrooms or on their own. Without this vital further study, they may not have the literacy tools to move beyond low-paying jobs and submissive roles in their new country.

Given the heavily oral goals of Survival English and English for Work, students are left with more developed listening and speaking skills and less developed reading and writing skills. Print is introduced in a very limited manner, with a focus on memorizing those words the student is likely to encounter. However, a program that moves beyond this and provides students with basic English literacy will enable learners to work in different and probably better paying settings. Students will be able to understand print they have not encountered in the classroom, and most importantly, they can continue learning English beyond the functional and memorization stage. As JoAnn Crandall (1993) suggests, "It is clear that there are large numbers of individuals with little or no prior education in their home countries who desire both English language and literacy skills to permit them access to enhanced educational, social, political, and employment opportunities" (p. 2). ESL literacy is also important for parenting: "Another factor...is the recognition of the role of parental literacy in children's school achievement, especially important in multilingual families where children have the added need of acquiring a second language" (Weinstein-Shr, in Crandall & Peyton, 1993, p. 3). Clearly the argument for including basic English literacy in ESL programs is

strong. With the added skill of literacy, adults who are otherwise just surviving can achieve so much more.

SUCCESS-RELATED FACTORS

Literacy-level adults are a unique group. They differ from other ESL students in many ways. Not only are they adult learners; they may be first-time learners in a formal school setting. They are parents, grandparents, and great-grandparents. Some have never lived in an urban environment. Many of these learners have fought in wars, have been forced from their homes, lived in refugee camps, been imprisoned, and suffered through hunger and trauma. Many have lost family members and friends, or have left them behind in uncertain conditions. They are all in a new place that is unlike their home country, raising their children in a culture that is foreign and perhaps threatening to their way of looking at the world. Some work in very questionable conditions, with little or no way of defending their rights as workers and as residents of the U.S.

The ESL learner does not leave her life behind when she enters our classroom. The war comes with her, as do her children's needs, her lost siblings, her poor health, and her memories of a time when the world made more sense. To begin thinking about how to successfully instruct literacy-level adults, we must begin with the entire person--with all the factors that come with each student. The field of second language acquisition is just beginning to look at the impact of these complicating factors on language learning: native language literacy, age, trauma, family demands, cultural and individual beliefs, and sociopolitical concerns.

Of all the adult ESL programs I have encountered, the vast majority claim survival ESL as a basic goal. Many consider survival English as their only aim. Many ESL professionals have realized that, as argued above, this goal, while certainly important, is limiting. "Survival skills have been defined as those necessary for 'minimum functioning in the specific community in which the student is settled'" (Auerbach & Burgess, 1985, p. 476). Few will argue it is not a worthy goal to help students survive. However, perhaps by teaching and expecting *only* survival skills, we are in fact putting immigrants and refugees in a sociopolitical box which they then cannot get out of. If we do not give them the tools to compete for better paying jobs, argue for their rights, and participate fully in their communities, we are helping to keep them in submissive roles in society.

Auerbach and Burgess (1985) observe, "[Adult ESL] texts often prepare students for subservient social roles and reinforce hierarchical relations within the classroom by precluding the creation of meaning and the

development of critical thinking skills" (p. 475). Every curriculum "reflects a particular view of the social order, whether implicitly or explicitly. This 'hidden curriculum' generates social meanings, restraints, and cultural values which shape students' roles outside of the classroom" (Auerbach & Burgess, 1985, p. 476).

Freire presents a distinction between *adaptation* to the immigrant's new society or *integration* into it:

> Integration results from the capacity to adapt oneself to reality plus the critical capacity to make choices and transform that reality. To the extent that man loses his ability to make choices and is subjected to the choices of others, to the extent that his decisions are no longer his own because they result from the external prescriptions, he is no longer integrated. Rather, he is adapted. (as cited in Auerbach & Burgess, 1985, p. 488)

By designing our curricula and lessons to facilitate our students' acquisition of the skills and language needed to integrate rather than to adapt, we widen their options in their new country. No longer are they limited or held back in submissive roles and low-paying jobs; they are able to get out of the survival English box.

How can we best help students integrate into their new communities? In order for a person to truly become part of her community and defend her rights in our society, literacy is needed. The Curriculum section of this paper looks at course design as well as principles and techniques that can help guide adult ESL educators who work with literacy-level learners.

CURRICULUM

Goals of a Literacy-Level Course

Through a series of class observations and interviews with teachers of low-literacy adults, a variety of goals can be named for literacy-level students. Given this input and that of programs around the country that shared their curricula with me, the following goals are those that I believe are most fitting for an ideal literacy-level ESL course.

1. *The learner will become comfortable with a school and language learning setting.* This means that the students should be able to participate in class activities, seek assistance, and use strategies for language learning.

Subgoals:

- Hold a pencil.
- Write left to right.

- Raise one's hand to ask a question.
- Join in pair and group work.
- Come to class on time and prepared.
- Use learning strategies such as reading aloud, copying and grouping words.

2. *The learner will obtain basic literacy skills.* Literacy skills include learning sound-symbol relationships in order to sound out words when reading and writing, as well as attaching meaning to printed language. Most importantly, literacy includes making the connection between oral and written language. Learners should be able to read and write simple language in order to deal with the print they encounter, to express their ideas and feelings, and to record and review information presented in class.

Subgoals:

- Pronounce the names of letters *(My name is spelled P-A-T-S-Y).*
- Associate letters with their corresponding *sounds (The letter B makes the sound "buh"...).*
- Write the letters of the alphabet.
- Recognize same and different letters and both upper and lower cases.
- Recognize same and different words, as well as word boundaries.
- Sound out simple words encountered in daily life and guess at their meanings.
- Use creative spelling to write, therefore connecting oral and written language.
- Increasingly be able to read and understand simple language without visual prompts.
- Learn basic English letter combinations and spelling rules.

3. *The learner will obtain basic numeracy skills.* Numeracy includes counting and dealing with money and prices, telephone numbers, and so on, as well as basic mathematics.

Subgoals:

- Recognize, write, and say the names of numbers in sequence.
- Recognize, write, and say number sets such as telephone numbers, social security numbers, prices, and ages.
- Deal with money and prices.
- Sort and put number sets in order.
- Use and understand basic charts and graphs.
- Do basic mathematical computations.

4. *The learner will be able to give personal information, both in writing*

and orally. This is the first step to achieving self-sufficiency in the United States, a goal of most, if not all, adult ESL programs.

Subgoals:

- Introduce oneself orally to someone else.
- Say name, address, telephone number, birth date, and so on clearly.
- Fill out various personal information forms.
- Interrupt and correct someone who writes or says his or her personal information incorrectly.

5. *The learner will be able to converse on a simple level.* Conversation involves both speaking and listening. Conversation topics may include talking about one's family, health, job, and so on, while other programs may allow for more student input, therefore finding topics that are of particular interest to the learners.

Subgoals:

- Name and comprehend simple nouns and verbs (*family, job, go, want*).
- Exchange information about family, health, feelings, and so on.
- Acquire conversational ability to accomplish daily tasks at the grocery store, bank, doctor's office, and so on.
- Exchange reactions to field trips, pictures, and school activities.
- Increase one's ability to talk about topics with less contextual support and topics which are unfamiliar to the listener.

6. *The learner will become more familiar with the United States and its culture, as well as services available to its residents.* As a society's culture and language are forever intertwined, students of ESL are also students of American culture. This is a delicate issue. The ESL instructor must be respectful and interested in the students' cultures, while presenting useful information and points of view from the U.S. Teachers should approach cultural discussions by way of comparing and thereby including student cultures whenever possible. This goal can also be seen as civics education, offering the student a way to become familiar with her rights and responsibilities as a resident of the United States.

Subgoals:

- Gain competence talking about one's home culture, as well as similarities and differences between it and that of the U.S.
- Learn cultural facts about local laws and customs.
- Learn where and how to find more information on cultural top-

ics of interest.

- Discuss important or challenging aspects of living in the United States.
- Depending on the program, some courses may choose to include parenting, worker's rights, and other cultural topics as students' interests and needs dictate.

Sequence

Ideally, lessons reflecting the six goals above should be presented together, in an integrated fashion. However, this is not easy to do every day! Finding a balance among literacy, numeracy, cultural, and conversational goals is important, and it can also be difficult. When looking at the above subgoals, it is clear that some must come before others. For example, a student must be able to associate letters with their corresponding sounds before she can attempt creative spelling or learn basic spelling rules. In an effort to organize a curriculum for ESL literacy-level instruction, Table 1 sorts the many subgoals into five phases. The rationale behind the curriculum chart was to give a course some guidelines, a path to follow, while allowing for maximum flexibility and student input.

Each phase, under ideal conditions, represents a unit of instruction that could be completed in approximately 60 hours of instruction. That being said, as all teachers know, different students learn at very different paces. What "clicks" for one student may take weeks or months for another to grasp. Adult education programs are, by nature, messy. Students begin at very different places and have less than ideal attendance. Clearly, students bring much more to class than perfect attention and motivation for English and literacy. There are distractions, obstacles, and a thousand other variables that affect this all-too-neat curriculum. However, it is a place to start. It is a reference for teachers, administrators, and students. It allows a teacher to work with a student and realize, "This learner is at Phase 5 in conversation, but at Phase 1 in literacy skills. OK, here are the gaps we need to work on."

Goal 6 *(The learner will become more familiar with the United States and its culture, as well as services available to its residents)* is not included in the curriculum chart. Cultural contexts cannot be pre-set with any certainty; what is vital to learn in class cannot necessarily be predicted before the course begins. I have left this cultural goal off the chart in order for teachers to select these topics together with their students. Cultural goals can be altered to fit any of the phases. Furthermore, in order to be effective, they must arise out of the students' needs and interests. More discussion and ideas about this sixth goal follow.

TABLE 1

ESL Literacy Curriculum Sequence

ESL Literacy Curriculum sequence	**Goal 1** *Learner will become comfortable with a school and language learning setting.*	**Goal 2** *Learner will obtain basic literacy skills.*	**Goal 3** *Learner will obtain basic numeracy skills.*	**Goal 4** *Learner will be able to give personal information, both in writing and orally.*	**Goal 5** *Learner will be able to converse on a simple level.*
Phase 1 Subgoals:	-Hold a pencil -Come to class on time -Write left to right	-Pronounce names of letters -Associate letters with their corresponding sounds -Write the letters of the alphabet	-Recognize, say, and write numbers in sequence	-Introduce oneself to someone else orally	-Name and comprehend simple nouns and verbs (*family, job, go, want...*) -Use communication strategies like *I don't understand* and *Please say that again*
Phase 2 Subgoals:	-Review Phase 1 subgoals as needed -Come to class prepared -Raise hand to ask questions	-Review Phase 1 -Recognize same and different letters -Recognize upper and lower cases	-Review Phase 1 -Recognize, say, and write number sets like telephone numbers, social security numbers, prices, and so on	-Review Phase 1 -Say name, address, telephone number, birth date clearly -Fill out simple information form	-Continue Phase 1 -Use conversational ability to accomplish daily tasks at the grocery store, bank, and so on -Begin exchanging reactions to field trips, pictures, and school activites -Use more communication strategies, like *What does ___ mean?*
Phase 3 Subgoals:	-Review Phases 1-2 as needed -Join in pair and group work	-Review Phases 1-2 -Recognize same and different words -Recognize word boundaries	-Continue Phase 2	-Continue Phase 2	-Continue Phases 1-2 -Use more complex communication strategies, (listening for key words, using clarification questions)
Phase 4 Subgoals:	-Continue Phase 3	-Review Phases 1-3 -Sound out simple words encountered in daily life and guess at their meaning -Use creative spelling to write	-Review Phases 1-3 -Sort and put number sets in order -Do basic mathematical computations	-Review Phases 1-3 -Fill out increasingly complicated information forms	-Review 1-3 -Continue to converse about more difficult topics while reviewing past material -Continue to build repertoire of communication strategies
Phase 5 Subgoals:	-Review Phases 1-4 -Use learning strategies	-Review Phases 1-4 -Increasingly be able to read and understand simple language without visual prompts -Learn basic English letter combinations and spelling rules	-Review Phases 1-4 -Deal with money and prices -Use and understand basic charts and graphs	-Review Phases 1-4 -Interrupt and correct someone who writes/says personal information incorrectly	-Increase one's ability to talk about topics with less contextual support and topics which are unfamiliar to the listener

Presentation

Now that a framework curriculum has been established, how can we as teachers take this into our classrooms? What appears simple and clear on paper turns into something quite different as we plan our lessons.

The easiest way to begin is with the goal that is purposely not on the chart: familiarity with U.S. culture and services. By choosing a topic, or a *cultural context* as I call them here, the rest of the goals manage to fall into place.

Cultural contexts will work best if they are of immediate need and interest to the students. Teachers should collaborate with their learners to find out what is important to them when choosing upcoming topics. Planning out the entire semester in advance does not allow for student input. Whatever cultural context arises, it can be adapted to the phases the students are currently working within.

The following list includes some of the many cultural contexts the literacy-level ESL students may wish to pursue. Some are likely to be seen in Survival English programs, others in work readiness programs, while others are more general topics for programs that plan thematically:

Calendars and time	Library and School
Clothing	Money and banks
Describing people	Music and Art
Emergencies and Safety	Occupations
Family	Outdoor recreation
Feelings	Parenting
Food	Post office and Mail
Greetings	Signs and Directions
Health	Time Cards at Work
Holidays	Transportation
Housing	Weather
Job Interviews	Winter activities

For example, a number of students are looking for work and have expressed an interest in working nearby. One of the students brings in a flyer they received in the mail from a local produce company (a business that prepares produce for restaurants and stores) that says the company is now hiring. The instructor chooses to make this the cultural context for the next unit. Early in the first week, they visit the company for a tour. The students are mostly in Phase 4 of the curriculum chart.

Under each of the six goals, the following subgoals can be set for this particular cultural context:

Goal 1: (Become Comfortable with School and Language Learning Setting)

- Work with a partner to create sentences or phrases about the trip to the produce company.
- Work in a large group with the instructor to talk and write about the trip and discuss pros and cons of working for this company.

Goal 2: (Obtain Basic Literacy Skills)

- With printed material from the company, work on sounding out and guessing meanings of words.
- Use creative spelling to write about the experience at the produce company.

Goal 3: (Obtain Basic Numeracy Skills)

- Practice sorting labels of products from the company.
- Use the company's inventory forms to practice counting and calculating types of products.

Goal 4: (Be Able to Give Personal Information)

- Learn how to fill out this potential employer's application materials.
- Role-play human resource staff member and potential employer; practice giving and correcting personal information.

Goal 5: (Be Able to Converse on a Simple Level)

- Learn vocabulary related to this workplace.
- Practice asking supervisor for assistance, instructions.
- Role-play co-worker conversations.
- Role-play calling in sick, asking for time off, schedule change, etc.

Goal 6: (Become More Familiar with U. S . Culture and Services)

- Learn about this potential workplace, the pros and cons of working there.
- Find out how to apply for this and similar jobs and what qualifications or skills are necessary.

In summary, the curriculum chart is to be used as a general guide, a way of organizing one's thoughts for a unit of instruction. It is not a format for planning a day's lesson, but rather a way of structuring a particular topic. It is very much a guiding tool that requires the instructor and students to complete the specific goals and tasks. Choosing topics and subgoals that are of immediate need and interest to the students al-

lows their voices to be part of the decision-making. This matrix can simply guide the planning of a unit and help teachers build upon their students' current abilities.

BEST PRACTICES

Our activities in the classroom grow directly from the principles that we keep as teachers of literacy-level adults. From interviews with teachers, class observations, and my own experience, I gathered a set of 12 principles regarding teaching literacy-level ESL students. They are as follows:

1. Hands-on activities facilitate understanding and learning.
2. Visual aids help students learn.
3. Connecting the classroom to real life is important.
4. Physical movement helps students adapt to the school setting and encourages participation.
5. Connecting oral language to written language is crucial.
6. Incorporating technology in instruction is beneficial for language learning and future employment.
7. Frequent breaks are important.
8. Using cultural comparison as a basis for speaking and writing empowers students and allows for rich language use.
9. Activities that encourage cooperative learning are beneficial.
10. Meaningless copying from the board or textbook is of minimal value.
11. It's best to give students the time they need to complete tasks in class, and not assign nightly homework.
12. Talking about how to learn a language (language strategies) helps students acquire English more efficiently.

To better understand how these principles can be applied, a sample lesson follows, which is described as it was implemented. After each section of the lesson, the principles that were put into practice are listed.

SAMPLE LESSON

Language Experience Approach: Produce Company

9:30-10:30 Field Trip

During this hour, all students in the program carpool to a nearby produce company for a tour with a manager. The tour takes place in English, with more advanced students helping the lower levels with difficult vocabulary. Literacy-level students are engaged and listen care-

fully, but appear to comprehend very little of the manager's explanations. However, the tour is very visual, and it is not difficult to understand what the workers and company do.

During the field trip, the literacy-level teacher takes Polaroids of various important parts of the company. The literacy-level students offer suggestions and point at places she should photograph. She takes eight shots altogether.

Principles put into practice:

- Hands-on activities facilitate understanding and learning.
- Connecting the classroom to real life is important.
- Physical movement helps students adapt to the school setting and encourages participation.
- Activities that encourage cooperative learning are beneficial.

10:30-10:45 Break

Students carpool back to the school and meet in the classroom, all levels together.

Principles put into practice:

- Frequent breaks are important.

10:45-11:00 Response to the Produce Company

A teacher leads a discussion about the pros and cons of working at this particular company. A list is generated on the board with student and teacher input. The teachers are careful to list positive things about the job. (Since this program is job-readiness oriented, the lessons often focus on possible employers and reasons to accept or not accept certain positions.)

Students ask questions, including some about the medical insurance and company pay policy. Although the literacy-level students are not actively participating, they do appear to be listening intently, and they ask each other questions in the L1.

Next the teacher asks students what jobs they know and why these jobs could be good or bad. Some native language is used among the students. Literacy-level students appear to tune out of the discussion at this point.

After a couple of minutes, the literacy-level teacher chooses to pull her students out of the large group and continue in their own classroom.

Principles put into practice:

- Connecting oral language to written language is crucial.

11:00-11:45 Students Generate a Text about the Field Trip

"What was the first thing we saw at the company?" the teacher asks. A short conversation follows, with mostly one-word contributions from the students. The teacher validates every response. Next the students are put in pairs and given one of the Polaroids. They are asked first to talk to each other about their picture, to think about some words that go along with it.

The teacher circulates and helps students remember what machines are called and compliments their ideas. Next, the pairs are asked to write down a sentence that describes their picture. Students work intently to create sentences, talking to each other in both English and the L1. The teacher circulates and hints, but does not write or spell for the students. They may consult past notes as needed.

When each pair has something to say, they are asked to turn to a nearby pair and share their pictures and sentences. The pairs check each other's work and offer suggestions. Now each pair sets their picture and sentence on the table, and students mill around, looking at each one and deciding what order the sentences should go in. They stand up and look at and read each one, and talk to each other about which goes where. After a few minutes, they decide on an order for the sentences and pictures. The pairs write their sentences on the board in their order. The teachers write them down quickly as well:

1. Trucks bring food to the company.
2. People wash the food.
3. Sometimes machines wash the food.
4. People check the food.
5. People chop the vegetables.
6. People put food in bags.
7. People weigh the food/how many pounds.
8. The company sells the food.

First the teacher reads the sentences aloud and explains any questions about meaning. Students repeat after her. Then students are asked to read the sentences in unison. Finally students are asked individually to read their sentences aloud.

Principles put into practice:

- Visual aids help students learn.
- Connecting the classroom to real life is important.
- Connecting oral language to written language is crucial.
- Activities that encourage cooperative learning are beneficial.
- Physical movement helps students adapt to the school setting and encourages participation.

11:45-12:00 Break, or Quiet Time to Read

Students are given time for a break. Some students leave the room for a break, while others look intently at the board and at their notebooks. Some students read aloud to themselves or each other. Some students take this time to copy the sentences into their notebooks. Some help each other understand by using the native language.

Principles put into practice:

- Frequent breaks are important.

12:00-12:15 Sentence Scramble

The teacher returns, and they read through the sentences one more time. For a couple of minutes she points to individual words and asks students to read them. When they struggle, the teacher helps them sound it out by looking at each letter. Then the teacher erases the board and asks students to close their notebooks. She hands each student a half sheet of paper with the sentences typed on it, in mixed up order. She hands out scissors and students cut the sentences into strips.

Next students must read and put the sentences in the correct order (as they had been on the board). As they finish, the teacher checks them and points out errors. While others are finishing, students are asked to read their sentences to a neighbor.

Principles put into practice:

- Hands-on activities facilitate understanding and learning.
- Connecting oral language to written language is crucial.
- Activities that encourage cooperative learning are beneficial.

12:15-12:30 Letter Practice

Students put the sentences away and open to a clean piece of paper. As the teacher reads out a word from the text they have written, students are asked to write down the first letter. They do a couple together to check for understanding, and then they continue on their own. After four words (*company, people, trucks, food*), they check their answers together. Then they do another 10 words (*bring, machines, weigh, bags, put, wash, bring, machines, pound, to, sometimes*).

Now the teacher asks them to write down the first two letters of the word she says aloud (*chop, check, truck, bring*). This is obviously more difficult for the students.

Finally, students are asked to write down the last letter they hear (*food, put, check*). Answers are checked together on the board.

At 12:30, students are told that if they have time, they should look over their sentences again and practice. They will continue with this text tomorrow.

Principles put into practice:

- Connecting the classroom to real life is important.
- Connecting oral language to written language is crucial.
- Meaningless copying from the board or text is of minimal value.
- It's best to give students the time they need to complete tasks in class, and not assign nightly homework.

CONCLUSION

Adult ESL educators will continue to work with many students who lack native language literacy. By better understanding who these students are and what factors may affect their learning, instructors can gain perspective on the needs and challenges of this population. Through student input and careful course design, we can attempt to fill in the gaps of limited or interrupted education. Only through literacy will students be able to climb out of the survival English box and become full participants in their communities. Principles underlying effective instruction to literacy-level adults need to be put into practice and further explored. A number of techniques that have proved useful in the literacy-level classroom are outlined here, but clearly, more research and teacher collaboration is needed to spread the word about best practices in teaching ESL literacy.

NOTES

[1] This article was adapted from a larger publication, *Successful Instruction for Literacy-Level Adults*, with the permission of the Center for Advanced Research in Language Acquisition (CARLA). The full publication is available as a CARLA Working Paper through this website:
http://carla/acad.umn.edu/working-papers.html.
Vinogradov, P. (2001). Successful instruction for literacy-level adults. *CARLA Working Paper Series #17*. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota, The Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition.

[2] Some educators claim that ESL students literate in a non-Roman alphabet language comprise a fourth group. However, their situation is quite different. These students are educated, highly familiar with print and fully literate in their native language but are simply not familiar with the English sound-symbol relationships. Learning a new alphabet is considerably less of a task than acquiring literacy itself. I do not include this group among literacy-level ESL students. A person learns to read only once.

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APPENDIX

Recommended Teaching Materials

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ImAgInArY WoRlD

Imaginary world is a world where I am the queen.
It's a world where everyone respects me for who I am.
It's a world where I don't have to invent a new me.

Imaginary world is where love is being truthful to yourself.
It's a world where love means completely trusting the other.
It's a world where I don't have to act.

Imaginary world is a peaceful place where hatred doesn't exist.
It's a place where everyone respects, admires & values the other.
It's a place where I could witness all kinds of animals gathering around the river
without fear.
It's a place where I can watch the orange greenish bird fly above the lake.

Imaginary world is a place where eyes don't water.
It's a place where a broken heart is a transgression.
It's a place where promises symbolize a great deal.
It's a perfect place where I have everything I desire.
It's a world where I don't have to pretend.

Hawa Farah
2000

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Issues Related to ESL Students and Minnesota's Basic Standards Tests: A Synthesis of Research from Minnesota Assessment Project

MICHAEL E. ANDERSON, BONNIE SWIERZBIN, KRISTIN K. LIU, AND MARTHA L. THURLOW
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Minnesota Assessment Project was a four year research project examining the participation and performance of LEP students in the Minnesota statewide accountability system. This article summarizes some of the findings of this research as it relates to inclusion, participation and performance, and accommodation of LEP students in statewide tests. Emphasis is placed on the current state of knowledge on testing the reading skills of students with developing literacy in English and the issues that surround this process.

With the reauthorization of the Improving America's Schools Act (IASA) of 1994, states in the U.S. are creating accountability systems to ensure that all students reach high academic standards. To meet the requirements of Title I, which states must do in order to continue to receive Title I funding, all students must be included in these accountability systems. Further, these accountability systems are required to include as a primary component a state-level assessment system. Minnesota, like most other states, has implemented a system of statewide accountability testing in its public schools. This system includes standardized testing of students in the areas of math and reading at grades 3, 5 and 8 and in the area of writing at grades 3, 5, and 10. In addition, a system to measure students' progress toward high standards has been implemented at the high school level. In order to gain a true picture of how all of the students in Minnesota are progressing toward educational standards, it is important to include all students in this system. For this reason, the Minnesota Department of Children, Families, and Learning (CFL) was awarded a grant from the U.S. Department of Education Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI) to study the participation and performance of limited English proficient (LEP) students and students with

disabilities in the state's accountability system. This project, called the Minnesota Assessment Project, was a collaborative effort with researchers, teachers, teacher educators and policy makers throughout the state.

As part of this four year grant, researchers at the National Center on Educational Outcomes at the University of Minnesota conducted several studies to gain a better understanding of the participation and performance of these students in the accountability system. This article is a brief synthesis of the findings as they relate to LEP students, especially in the area of reading tests. The issues discussed are organized under three major topics related to the research conducted during this project: inclusion, participation and performance, and accommodations.

Over the years that the project took place (1996-2000), the knowledge base on including LEP students in graduation standards grew considerably. As the new accountability system in Minnesota has been refined so have educators' and researchers' understandings of the issues facing students, parents, teachers, and policy makers. This article summarizes some of the research from the Minnesota Assessment Project that has influenced our current understanding of ESL students' participation in these tests. Some of the terminology has also changed over these years such as the growing preference for the term English Language Learners (ELLs) over the policy term Limited English Proficient (LEP) students. In this article the term LEP will be used because it is the term still used at the state and federal level and is consistent with the language used throughout the Minnesota Project reports, even though the authors acknowledge the overemphasis this term puts on limitations.

INCLUSION

Some people may ask why it is important to include LEP students in standardized reading tests when they may not yet be fully proficient in English. There are several reasons that LEP students need to be included in educational accountability systems. First, the Improving America's Schools Act of 1994 (IASA) requires that all students, including LEP students, be included in statewide accountability systems. Second, in Minnesota students must pass the eighth grade Basic Standards Tests (BSTs) in reading and mathematics and the tenth grade writing tests in order to be eligible to graduate from high school. Not graduating from high school can have a severely negative impact on students' post-secondary educational achievement and work prospects (Boesel, Alsalam, & Smith, 1998; Coley, 1995; Hodgkinson & Outtz, 1992). Third, if a school system truly wants an accountability system to reflect the progress of all students towards high achievement, all students need to be included in the system.

As part of Minnesota Assessment Project, parents of LEP students

and LEP students themselves were interviewed in focus groups after the first round of Basic Standards testing in order to better understand their opinions and concerns about the testing system (Quest, Liu, & Thurlow, 1997). Parents in all of the focus groups reported that they wanted their children to take advantage of all of the educational opportunities available to them in school so that they could be productive and contributing adults in the future. This included taking part in the statewide testing system. One mother said that the tests are important in showing that her son is successful in school. Other parents commented that the tests are necessary to ensure that students can read, write, and do basic mathematics skills the parents viewed as essential for students continuing their education beyond school. However, parents were quite unclear about how the statewide testing differed from other tests given throughout the year.

Students in the focus groups also wanted to be included in the system. Although some students did not understand the purpose of the tests during this first year of testing, those that did felt that they could pass them and graduate from high school if given the support and opportunity to do so. The focus groups demonstrated a clear need for better communication about the Basic Standards Tests with LEP students and their families. Focus groups recommended the following ways of communicating with parents of LEP students: (a) sending home written notes, (b) communicating with social service organizations or community elders, (c) utilizing native language media such as newspapers, (d) using the native language of the parents to communicate with parent organizations that are active in some schools, and (e) including testing information in registration meetings at the beginning of the year.

PARTICIPATION AND PERFORMANCE

Although policy may require students' participation in accountability testing and students and parents may advocate for inclusion, LEP students and students with special needs have often been left out of accountability systems in the past (Zlatos, 1994). For this reason, part of the research conducted during the Minnesota Assessment Project examined the actual participation of LEP students in the state's testing system. The participation rates for eighth graders taking the Basic Standards Tests during 1996 to 1999 are shown in Figure 1. During these years several factors played a role in students' participation. When the BSTs were first offered in 1996, they were optional and only about 80% of all eligible students in the state took part in the testing (Liu, Anderson, & Thurlow, 2000). In 1997, school districts were able to choose between the BSTs and another set of standardized tests. It was not until 1998 that the BSTs were

required to be administered for accountability purposes. Comparing the data from 1998 and 1999, it can be seen that LEP students' participation was high, that is, near 90% each year, and increased slightly from 1998 to 1999. Under Minnesota testing guidelines, the only LEP students who can be exempted from testing in eighth grade are those students who have been in the country for less than one year and also have very limited English skills.

FIGURE 1
Participation Rates for the Minnesota Basic Standards Tests 1996-1999

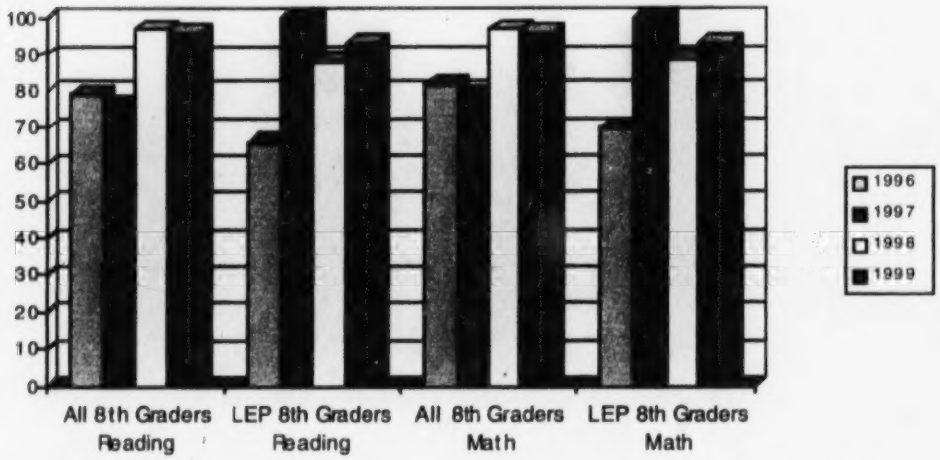
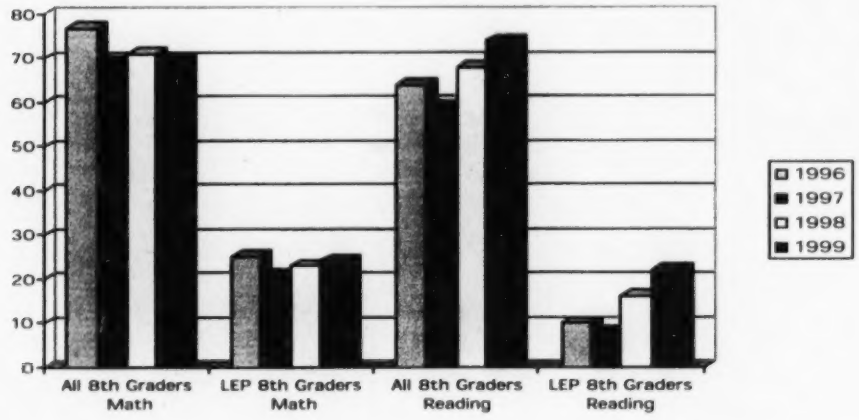


Figure 2 shows the passing rates for the BST reading and math tests during 1996-1999 for all eighth graders and for LEP eighth graders. The passing rates in 1997 dropped slightly from those of 1996 for both groups, which may be due to the fact that the percent correct needed to pass the test was raised to 75% in 1997 from 70% in 1996. Since 1997, however, the percentage of all students passing the reading test has increased steadily from 59% to 74%. These gains have mirrored the gains of LEP students on the reading test. The passing rate for LEP eighth graders has risen from 8% in 1997 to 22% in 1999. In comparison, passing rates for the math tests have remained more stable over these years for all students, including LEP students.

Because initially LEP students seemed to have more problems with the reading tests than the math tests, much of our research on performance and test accommodations concerned the reading tests. To increase understanding of how LEP students perform over time on the BST reading test, the Minnesota Assessment Project also assessed the performance of students who did not achieve a passing score for graduation purposes

FIGURE 2
Passing Rates (Percent Passing) for Minnesota Basic Standards Tests 1996-1999



in the first round of testing for the school years 1996-1998 and subsequently retook the tests. Specifically, we asked if there was a range of first-time scores that predicted passing the test on the second try. Between 1997 and 1998, 20% or fewer of LEP students who retook the BST in reading passed. In contrast, among all students, 52% passed the reading test on the second attempt (Spicuzza, Liu, Swierzbin, Bielinski, & Thurlow, 2000). LEP students who scored below 64-68% of reading test items correct on the first attempt had less than a 50% chance of passing the test the second time. However, there was a small group of students who scored below 25% correct on their initial test attempt but still passed the test (scored over 75%) on their second try. Knowing that LEP students struggled with the reading tests and also recognizing the importance of including these students in the accountability system, part of the research conducted for the Minnesota Assessment Project focused on ways to reduce the barriers that might stand in the way of students best demonstrating what they know on these tests. The most common practice for reducing these test barriers are test accommodations that address test setting, format, or presentation factors that may adversely affect a student's performance.

ACCOMMODATIONS

Although testing accommodations seem to hold some promise for helping LEP students better demonstrate what they know on standardized tests, a strong knowledge base does not yet exist on the impact and

appropriateness of testing accommodations for these students. Many of the accommodations allowed for LEP students on statewide tests were originally developed for students with disabilities and may not be appropriate for LEP students because they do not address the language barrier (Rivera & Vincent, 1997). Surveys of state accommodation policies for LEP students have shown that the accommodations allowed as well as the definition of LEP varies by state (Rivera, Stansfield, Scialdone, & Sharkey, 2000; Thurlow, Liu, Erickson, Spicuzza, & El Sawaf, 1996). Some states allow no accommodations on any tests. In some states, accommodations, especially translations, are not allowed on the reading tests although they are allowed on the math tests. The question remains how to accommodate for the barriers of emerging language skills when the test is a test of reading English.

Table 1 shows the accommodations and translations allowed on the Minnesota Basic Standards Tests. In Minnesota, an accommodation is a change to the test or test setting that does not alter the standard being tested. A translation, on the other hand, may alter the standard being tested and thus results in a special designation on the student's transcript ("Pass-Translation") when the test is being taken as a graduation requirement.

As part of the Minnesota Assessment Project, researchers looked at accommodations in two ways: first, what accommodations are being used by LEP students in Minnesota and second, what accommodations not currently available might be helpful to help LEP students better demonstrate what they know on the tests.

In 1999, test administrators were asked to record whether a student received an accommodation on the Basic Standards reading or mathematics tests given in eighth grade and what that accommodation was. The

TABLE 1
Accommodations and Translations Permitted for LEP Students Taking the Minnesota Basic Standards Tests (1998-1999 School Year)

Accommodations	Translations
• Audio cassettes in English (math only) • Script of the audio cassette (math only) • Clarification or translation of test directions • Extended time • Individual or small group setting • Writing directly on the test booklet • Short segment test booklets (math and reading only)	• Translations (math only) • Oral interpretations (math and written composition only)

data indicated that less than three percent of LEP students used any accommodation on the reading or math test (Liu, Anderson, & Thurlow, 2000). These numbers seem extremely low considering that for other student groups who use accommodations on tests, students with disabilities for example, more than half may use accommodations (Elliott, Bielinski, Thurlow, DeVito, & Hedlund, 1999).

It appears that accommodation use among LEP students in Minnesota was underreported or underused or both. The data from the Minnesota study could very well be underreported since they were collected on a separate form from the test answer sheet and the sheet was not filled out by most test administrators. The lack of research-based information on what accommodations most benefit LEP students makes the collection of accommodation use data extremely important. In order for educators to know whether the accommodations they are providing their students are useful, they need to know how they are being used. More states need to collect accommodation information as part of their reporting processes. Some states have begun to do so, but it may be several years before we have enough data to fully assess the state of accommodation use and make the testing situation more equitable for LEP students.

Finally, since there are no translations currently offered for the Basic Standards reading test, some of the research of the Minnesota Assessment Project examined the use and usefulness of bilingual accommodations. For this study, the reading passage was provided to students in English and the test questions were provided in a side-by-side bilingual format as well as aurally in their native language via a tape recorder. The tape-recorded questions were provided because educators had expressed concern about the usefulness of written translations for those students who are not literate in their native language. During the first phase of this research, nine native Spanish-speaking students took portions of the bilingual version of the test and were interviewed about their use of the accommodations. This was done to try out the translated portions to make sure they were functioning correctly and also to get in-depth opinions about the accommodation from a small group of students.

Overall, the students did not report having difficulty using the side-by-side translations or the native language tape. Most students used the written form of the test questions instead of the audiotape. The majority of students reported using primarily one language version of the questions (either English or Spanish) and referring to the other form only when they encountered difficulties. Most of the difficulties were reported to be unfamiliar vocabulary words. Even though only one student achieved a passing rate on the test passages, three of the nine students reported preferring to take the test only in English. Although students were tested

individually, each room often held two students working in different corners. The accommodation might have been used more often if it had been combined with an individual test setting since social pressure seemed to play a role in accommodation use (Liu, Anderson, Swierzbin, & Thurlow, 1999).

In the second phase of the study we gave the test to a larger group of students. Fifty-three native Spanish-speaking LEP students took the accommodated version (with side-by-side English and Spanish written questions and a Spanish audiotape of questions). Fifty-two native Spanish-speaking students took the test in English with no accommodation and a control group of 101 general education students also took the unaccommodated test. The bilingual version of the test appeared to be most helpful for those students with moderate English proficiency. Those with higher proficiencies did not use the translations and those with lower proficiencies who relied heavily on the translations scored low on the test. There was not a significant difference in mean test scores between the accommodated and unaccommodated LEP student groups (Anderson, Liu, Swierzbin, Thurlow, & Bielinski, 2000).

Students in the second phase of this study also reported using the translations to check unfamiliar vocabulary items. When asked which version of the test they would prefer to take for the actual Basic Standards Tests, about two-thirds of the students preferred some sort of bilingual accommodation, while one-third preferred an English only version. These preferences are interesting considering that very few of these students achieved a passing score on the test. Thus even though some students did not come close to passing the test, they chose not to use the accommodations. Perhaps the most important thing that this study of experimental accommodations demonstrates is that one cannot assume that because an accommodation is given to a student, that the accommodation will be used. It appears that peer pressure or a student's level of comfort in using a translation can affect the use of an accommodation. Future studies on reading accommodations should take use as well as usefulness into account. In addition, test accommodation decisions need to be made on an individual basis.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings mentioned above, the Minnesota Assessment Project offers the following suggestions to educators who would like to improve the test taking experiences of LEP students:

- Find out who is communicating with parents of LEP students about participation in the statewide accountability tests and when and how that communication occurs. Help your school to figure out

ways to communicate with families well in advance of the time when tests are administered. Talk with families about how the accountability tests are different from other tests given by the district or school.

- Encourage administrators and others responsible for remedial programming for LEP students who have failed the Basic Standards Test to direct the remedial efforts equally across all groups of LEP students who have not passed. Remedial efforts focused only on students closest to passing the test miss students at the low end of the continuum who may actually make more progress in skills from one test attempt to the next.
- If you are involved in recommending an accommodation for an LEP student taking an accountability test, make sure to talk to the student and his or her family about the accommodations available. For a variety of reasons students may not want to use accommodations that are available to them. If they want to use a particular accommodation, they may need to test in an individual setting or in a small group of other students who are using the same accommodation. Students may also lack skills that are needed to benefit from a certain accommodation, such as not having strong literacy skills in their native language.
- Encourage your school and district to make test participation and accommodation decisions on an individual basis, rather than for the entire group of LEP students as a whole. What works for one LEP student does not necessarily work for another one.
- Encourage test administrators in your building to record as much data as possible about which accommodations individual students are given on a test. Ask to see the data showing which accommodations are used most frequently by LEP students taking reading tests and look at how these students perform on the test. These steps will help you make test decisions that are most appropriate for LEP students.
- Work on skills and strategies for dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary in English reading passages.

This article reports on the beginning stages of building a statewide accountability system that includes all students, with special attention paid to the issues relating to LEP students. Trends in performance and participation data in this type of system are preliminary at best and more years of test data are needed to be able to talk reliably about performance trends for any students. Educators need to continue to monitor data such as LEP student performance, participation and accommodation use in order to refine and improve the accountability system and curriculum for these students. These data, if accurately measured, could be used to

create more valid assessment environments for LEP students. When performance information over time is known, the impact of the implementation of state accountability systems on the education of LEP students can be examined.

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A BIRD FLYING UP THE SKY

I looked up the heavens on a sunny day,
I noticed a bird flying up the sky.
I wondered what it would be like to fly carefree.
Not troubled about what would happen today or tomorrow.
Not worrying about what to eat the next day or year.

I wished I could be the peaceful &
Unconcerned bird flying up the sky.
I wished I could observe the world with its eyes
Not fearing about what the future holds for me.

I wished I could understand &
Appreciate the meaning of life like the bird.
I wished I could distinguish right from wrong.
I wished I could accept the world the way it is.

I wished I could conceal the unanswered questions.
I wished I could comprehend the unspeakable questions.
I wished I could value & accept myself
like the bird flying above me.

Hawa Farah
2000

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Review

The *MinneTESOL/WITESOL Journal* welcomes evaluative reviews of publications relevant to TESOL professions. In addition to textbooks and reference materials, these include computer and video software, testing instruments, and other forms of nonprint materials.

New Immigrants in the United States, Sandra Lee McKay and Sau-Ling CynthiaWong (Eds.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000.

New Immigrants in the United States, edited by Sandra Lee McKay and Sau-Ling Cynthia Wong, presents a wealth of information about the social and educational implications of immigration which can assist second language educators in advocating for their students with colleagues, school administrators and decision makers. The editors contend that a reexamination of immigration issues is imperative as public interest in the topic of language education has heightened because of ever-increasing numbers of immigrants in our nation's public schools. Furthermore, they believe that any decisions concerning English programs should be informed by findings from the field of second language acquisition and current research on language usage within language minority communities.

The editors are quick to point out their ideological perspective. They regard the linguistic diversity of the U.S. as a valuable resource rather than a problem. Moreover, they argue that "English language learners have a dual right to gain proficiency in English through effective language programs and to maintain their mother tongue if possible...these two processes are interdependent" (p. 3). Acknowledging that education alone will not ensure that the newcomers gain access to all that America offers, the editors include within the text a series of articles calling for a social and political investment in these language learners.

The text is divided into three parts and consists of sixteen chapters. Each chapter presents information, provides suggestions for further reading and includes a list of references. There is no index. The first part includes historical data about immigration as well as information on the process of second language acquisition and language maintenance within immigrant communities. The second part focuses on several prominent immigrant groups, describing their history, language backgrounds, and language use patterns. The final section explores the connection between

successful language learning and social and political decision-making.

In Part I, author Reynaldo F. Macias gives an overview of U.S. immigration from 1664 through 1899, and then offers a vast amount of U.S. Census data from 1900 to the present to detail what he refers to as "the full linguistic beauty of the U.S. human bouquet" (p. 53). The statistics are presented in a straightforward, if overwhelming progression. The countries of origin of the immigrants, the languages spoken at home by these groups, the self-reported ability to speak English by the immigrants, the changes in the non-English speaking population of the U.S., state by state LEP K-12 enrollments, and the racial composition of the U.S. (1990 Census) are included. Interestingly, he also includes a table showing the registration in foreign language classes at U.S. institutions of higher education to emphasize his message that the linguistic diversity of our nation can be a resource, not a liability.

In the second chapter of this section, Calvin Veltman presents research findings documenting the process of second language acquisition within immigrant groups in the U.S.. This research shows a clear language shift within all immigrant groups to make English their preferred language. It also demonstrates that the rates of this language shift to English are so high that native languages are not maintained beyond the second generation. Popular wisdom to the contrary, Veltman contends that "there is no evidence that continued immigration poses any threat to the linguistic integrity of the United States" (p. 90). He emphasizes that all new immigrants, especially those of school age, clearly are eager to learn English to make it their principal means of communication.

To substantiate this research, in Part II, the editors take a closer look at eleven immigrant communities identified by the Department of Education as representing the most populous language groups of English language learners in the public schools. Each chapter begins with an overview of the group's immigration history, includes information on current demographics, and summarizes research on language use within the community. Because of this format, readers can use the text as a resource handbook, picking and choosing which groups to read about.

Of particular interest to Minnesota and Wisconsin readers are several chapters on Spanish speakers, one chapter concerning the Hmong, Khmer and Laotian communities, and another on Soviet immigrants. Because of its reliance on 1990 Census data when selecting groups to focus upon, the text does not include any information on our region's more recent immigrants. There is no information on African immigrants. Missing also is information about non-Jewish immigrants from Eastern Europe. This is indeed a loss because the existing chapters offer insightful information about the various groups' immigration experiences and attitudes which could have implications for the language classroom.

While the chapter dealing with the Hmong community offers little new information, author M.G. Lòpez underscores the changes and tensions within the community as a filiarchal family structure often displaces the adults' traditional role in the family and community. The author emphasizes the importance of bilingual education as a means to maintain well-being in the community.

The short chapter on Soviet immigrants focuses on issues of language acquisition of a more elderly student population. It describes a prevailing skepticism in this group towards all institutions which often results in dissatisfaction with language instruction.

Part III of the text looks at some of the educational and social implications of the preceding data. McKay writes of the importance of educational investment. She points out that while there is no one right way to educate English language learners, programs which have been identified as successful share certain features. These programs have high expectations for their students, demonstrate close collaboration between content and language teachers, and are committed to parent involvement in the education process.

Rachel Moran looks at the American public school system, where local control and local responsibility often are at odds with national immigration policies. She advocates increased federal intervention to assist states in coping with the impact of high levels of immigration.

Finally, Bonny Pierce writes of the problems inherent in subtractive bilingualism, when loss of the mother tongue has devastating effects on the learners' family and community. She argues that "teachers should strive to encourage immigrant language learners to invest in both the target language community and the immigrant language community"(p. 459).

As part of the Cambridge Language Teaching Library, *New Immigrants in the United States* was designed for use by pre-service and in-service language teachers and administrators, and could be used in undergraduate or graduate teacher education courses. Reading this book from cover to cover would be a daunting task; however, it could be used as a source book for all interested in learning more about issues of immigration and acculturation. More importantly, for those of us seeking up-to-date factual information to present to those who make decisions about the lives of our students, it can serve as a valuable resource.

THE REVIEWER

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